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THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS REVIEW

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NOTICES.

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Books for Review and all contributions and communications (*except advertisements*) should be addressed to *The Editor*, Mr. F. RITCHIE, Bradbourne Villas, Sevenoaks. Advertisements should be sent direct to the Publishers at Oxford.

Any Headmaster of a Preparatory School who wishes to join the Association should communicate with the Secretary, Mr. F. RITCHIE, Bradbourne Villas, Sevenoaks.

In the next number of the *Review*, which will be published in July, 1904, advertisements of the following nature will be inserted at a charge of 2s. 6d. for 30 words, and 6d. for every additional 6 words or under :—

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BACK NUMBERS.

THE number for December, 1902, completed Vol. III of the *P.S.R.* An index with title-page for binding was issued with the March number. Back numbers of Vols. I and II (except Nos. 1, 6, 11, which are out of print) may now be obtained on application to the Oxford Publishers at half-price (6d. each) post free. The first seventeen numbers (with the exception of Nos. 1, 6 and 11) will be supplied to members, bound in one volume, at the reduced price of 8s., including binding.

NOTES AND COMMENTS.

THE CONFERENCE.

THE Twelfth Annual Conference of the Association held on Dec 22nd and 23rd was perhaps the most successful of the series, over one hundred members being present. The Dinner on the evening of the 22nd was attended by sixty-one members besides a considerable number of guests. The report of the Conference will perhaps appear to some members to occupy an undue space in the present number of the *P.S.R.* It has been found, however, that a tolerably full account of what was actually said and done at our Annual Conference is of great value in subsequent discussions.

THE COMMITTEE.

THE five vacant places on the Committee have been filled up by the election of Mr. E. P. Baily (Limpsfield), Rev. C. R. Carter (Maidenhead), Mr. F. Hollins (Eastbourne), Mr. G. Gidley Robinson (Godalming), and Mr. H. Strahan (Hythe). At the first meeting of the new Committee the Rev C. T. WICKHAM was elected CHAIRMAN for 1904.

In another column will be found the information asked for at the Conference as to the number of members who have served on the Committee since the formation of the Association.

During the year 1903 there were five meetings of the Committee and the average attendance was 15.6 out of a possible 17. Twelve members attended all the meetings.

COMMON ENTRANCE EXAMINATION.

THE scheme for a Common Entrance Examination is taking shape, and it is hoped that the first examination may be held during the Summer Term. The main outlines of the proposed scheme will be found in the Chairman's address. It will be noticed that it is intended to give all schools belonging to the Association and containing 25 boys

the privilege of holding the examination in their own schools. This concession was suggested by the Committee of the Head-Masters' Conference.

ROYAL NAVAL COLLEGE, OSBORNE.

AT the examination held in December, 71 candidates qualified for admission to the Royal Naval College at Osborne. In another column will be found a letter addressed by the First Lord of the Admiralty to the ex-Chairman of the Association thanking members for the assistance they have given to the Admiralty: also an announcement of certain changes in the examination which are to come into effect in July. It will be noticed (1) that the lower limit of age is raised by six months; (2) that 'options' disappear from the syllabus, and that therefore Latin is practically compulsory; (3) that these changes have been made *with the express object of bringing the examination into line with the work of ordinary Preparatory Schools*. The changes made are in accordance with the principles which the Association has persistently advocated.

INHABITED HOUSE DUTY.

A LETTER signed by the members of the Sub-Committee appointed to deal with this subject was circulated last December among subscribers to the fund raised five years ago. The letter, after referring to the favourable judgment of Mr. Justice Phillimore delivered in June 1902 and to its reversal by the Court of Appeal in Feb. 1903, stated that "It is now proposed that a deputation which might include representatives from various School Organizations should approach the Chancellor of the Exchequer with a view to paving the way for Parliamentary action; and that educational buildings should thus be brought by special legislation within the Schedule of Exceptions appended to the Statute of Geo. III. Elementary School buildings have already been given this privilege."

GREEK AT OXFORD.

COMPULSORY Greek at Responsions has been abolished for honour men in Mathematics and in Natural Science. With this limitation it will be some time before this change can appreciably affect Preparatory Schools: Greek must remain an item in

the Preparatory curriculum so long as it is set for Entrance Scholarships. There must inevitably be some difference of opinion as to the wisdom of the change, but a glance at the names of the supporters of the resolution should at least dispose of the accusation that they are all 'enemies of the Classics.'

'SCHOOL.'

THE growing interest in educational matters is indicated by the recent increase in the number of educational journals. Last year we had *Education*, a paper which must have proved very helpful to those who are engaged in administering the new Act. This year we have *School*, a monthly review, edited by Mr. Laurie Magnus and published by Mr. Murray. The January number makes an excellent beginning. Lord Avebury in a paper entitled 'My Start in Life' mentions that he "*never did a sum, or had a lesson in any modern language, the whole time he was at Eton. Arithmetic and French and German had indeed just been started, but they were treated as extras—like fencing or dancing.*"

ASSOCIATION OF HEADMASTERS OF PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

TWELFTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE.

THE Twelfth Annual Conference was held on Tuesday afternoon and Wednesday morning, December 22 and 23, 1903, at the Westminster Palace Hotel, Victoria Street, London, S.W.

E. D. MANSFIELD, Esq., in the Chair.

CHAIRMAN'S ADDRESS.

It is usual on these occasions for the Chairman to deal with the work of the Association during the past year, but the *Preparatory Schools Review* keeps members posted in the work of the Committee, and I think it will be sufficient to touch on those points on which they have not received information through this channel.

I am anxious first to say a word about the Recognition of our Schools and the Registration of Assistant-Masters. It is important for us all to get our Schools recognized by the Board of Education, if only because Assistant-Masters will, as time goes on, be increasingly unwilling to take work in schools which cannot give them a title to Registration. It may not be generally known that *Recognition for purposes of Registration* involves only a very simple kind

of inspection (chiefly as to suitability of buildings and age of pupils). This inspection can be readily obtained at any time by applying to the Board; but it must not be confused with *Recognition for efficiency*, which is a much more elaborate matter, involving a thorough inspection not only of buildings, but of work and teaching. The Board is inspecting in this way a fair number of our schools, and employs chiefly for the purpose the services of 'occasional inspectors'; and it is well that members should know that, if they desire Recognition of this kind, they may be sure of being efficiently and sympathetically inspected by men who know their work thoroughly; but the Inspectorate is not large, and I understand that they cannot undertake at present more than fifteen or twenty schools in the year.

COMMON ENTRANCE EXAMINATION.

It will be remembered that at our Conference last Christmas two resolutions were passed, one with regard to the Curriculum, and the other in favour of the principle of a Common Entrance Examination. For convenience' sake I will take first this question of Common Entrance Examination. It is a curious fact that the subject was also mooted at the Head-Masters' Conference and referred to a Committee. Since then the *general principle* has been accepted by thirty Public Schools who have expressed their willingness to try it for two years. These include Charterhouse, Clifton, Dulwich, Haileybury, Harrow, Marlborough, Radley, Repton, Rugby, Shrewsbury, and Westminster. The details of the scheme have been discussed at two meetings of delegates from the two Committees (Feb. 25 and Dec. 2). As a result the suggestions made by our Committee have been accepted in broad outline. The conclusions at which the delegates have arrived have, of course, to receive the approval of the Head-Masters' Executive Committee, but the scheme recommended (which would come into working next Summer Term) is briefly this:—

(1) The Examination would be held about a month before the end of Term, and would be finished in two days.

(2) The papers would be done at the Preparatory School. Any school of more than twenty-five boys, belonging to the Association, would be a 'centre' and have a right to receive the papers. The smaller schools might by arrangement send their candidates to any 'centre' school near at hand, but this combination would not be obligatory.

(3) Each Public School would select the papers in which it proposed that its candidates should be tested, and would correct their papers.

(4) A Board of Management would be appointed, consisting of three Headmasters of Public Schools and two of Preparatory Schools, whose duties would be:—

To appoint Examiners to set the papers.

To approve the papers when set.

To arrange the machinery of distribution and the remuneration of Examiners and of an organizing Secretary.

(5) The expenses of the Examination would be guaranteed by the Association, and would be met by a fee paid

by each candidate of (say) 10s. The Public Schools using the Examination would also make some contribution. Subjects to be included in the Examination were settled as follows:—

(1) *General Paper*.—1½ hours.

(1) Scripture, (2) History, (3) Geography.—A long paper with alternatives in each section. Each section ½ hour.

(2) *English*.—1 hour.

(a) Reproduction of a short story
(b) Short Essay on a simple subject
(c) Easy English Grammar questions } all must be tried.

(3) *Latin*.—2 hours.

(a) Grammar, ½ hour. (b) Prose, ¾ hour. (c) Translation, ¾ hour. Each paper graduated in difficulty, and collected at end of allotted time. Unusual words given in translation, but no dictionaries.

(4) *French*.—1½ hours.

(a) Grammar. (b) Prose. (c) Easy Translation.

(5) *Greek or German*.—1½ hours.

On similar lines to the Latin and French.

(6) *Mathematics*.—2 hours.

(a) Arithmetic. (b) Algebra. (c) Geometry—divided and collected as in case of General Paper.

(7) *Extra Papers*.—1 hour.

Latin Verses, or Science (Botany or Elementary Physiology).

Now it may be asked what we are to gain by this.

I would reply that—

(1) We make it probable that our boys will be well tested and therefore more accurately placed.

(2) We relieve the parents of our boys of a considerable expense.

(3) We avoid some risks and have our boys examined under conditions far more favourable to the examinee.

(4) We concentrate attention on the Examination in a way that must tend to facilitate reform in the Curriculum, of which it will be the acknowledged test.

I think these ends are worth achieving. It has, I know, been urged that it will make it more difficult for the dull boy to get a Public School Education at all. But it must be remembered that each school will look over its own papers, and there will be no compulsion exercised to raise the standard.

I pass on to the question of *Examination for the Navy*. The report of the Special Conference held on March 3rd, appeared in the *P.S.R.* for July, and the Resolution advocating the raising of the age to 13—14, passed at that Conference almost unanimously, was afterwards submitted to a poll of the Association and carried by 190 to 6. A protest, embodying this resolution and stating the reasons on which it was based, was drawn up by the Committee. This very temperately worded document was sent to the Admiralty and to all members of the Legislature. Although it has elicited no response, it has served at any rate to put on record the opinion of those who have the task of

educating the boys on this new scheme. But putting aside the question of age the method of selection that seems to be adopted is one which it is impossible to believe will be permanent. It seems to be generally admitted that the examination is little more than formal. Five or six gentlemen appointed by the Admiralty undertake to decide by a short interview whether or not a boy of twelve is likely to make eventually a good naval officer. It is true that these gentlemen are fortified by a somewhat elaborate report from the candidate's schoolmaster, and I understand that the Admiralty were much pleased by the candour and impartiality of these reports; but I know of cases in which the candidate was rejected in spite of a very favourable report, and I have heard of others where a distinctly unfavourable report did not interfere with the candidate's selection. The verdict of these gentlemen appears to be final when they reject a candidate. Whether the list as sent by them to the First Lord undergoes further revision is not clear. Now I do not vouch for the truth of these reports, but they are certainly current everywhere. If they are untrue they ought to be contradicted; if they are true, it is a matter that must cause grave uneasiness not only to schoolmasters but to all who have at heart the efficiency of the Naval Service. The nation at any rate has a right to know how naval officers are selected, whether by merit or by patronage pure and simple.

CURRICULUM.

In proceeding to discuss, as I must in conclusion, the much vexed subject of the Curriculum, I feel some misgivings, for the policy of the Association, to judge from letters that have recently appeared in the *Review*, does not meet with the approval of some of our members. We have been told in tones of solemn remonstrance that Preparatory Schoolmasters have enough to do to teach their own little boys without troubling themselves with Education outside; that if they have time and inclination so to trouble themselves they ought not to venture to criticize the Public Schools; that Associations are dangerous things and encourage mischievous propensities (it is only fair to say that this gentleman later on proposes to start a new one of his own); that this particular Association has fallen into the hands of a clique, composed of meddling faddists, who desire centralization and uniformity in place of the individual freedom which, we learn, is the characteristic of the present system. It is hinted, not obscurely, that many of us are the failures of the Public Schools, and that it is sheer profanity to set up our opinions against the Headmasters who are the successes of those institutions; that while we are (of course) all reformers, the programme of the Association is "wild revolution," and the new Curriculum a "strange medley of ill-digested Froebelism."

Now, gentlemen, to the purely personal part of this formidable indictment I do not propose to reply, nor will I waste time in vindicating the elementary right of Preparatory Schoolmasters to hold opinions and to express them, even, if need be, on the public institutions of the country;

but it is really of vital importance that the aim and policy of this Association should be fairly stated and clearly understood, and I will remind this meeting that in our articles of Association, drawn up twelve years ago, we formulated three aims:—

- (1) To draw more closely together the Headmasters of Preparatory Schools and to organize their opinion;
- (2) To advance the interests of Education, especially as affecting Preparatory Schools; and
- (3) To provide a recognized channel of communication with the Public Schools and with other educational bodies.

Gentlemen, I claim that your Executive Committee during the past twelve years has kept these three objects steadily in view, and has worked at them with great diligence and no inconsiderable success.

No one, at any rate, of those who have attended our Conferences will deny that this Association has fostered a sense of solidarity in our branch of the profession, a freer interchange of opinion and of experience, a greater readiness to emphasize points of agreement and sink points of difference, and as a consequence a far greater capacity for corporate action; and to these ends the organ of the Association, under the able and impartial guidance of the late and present editor, has contributed in no small degree. If this were all that the Association had to show by way of result, I for one should hold that it had amply justified its existence.

But we have abundant proof that we are regarded as the rightful representative of the Preparatory Schools by the *Board of Education*, which used the machinery of the Association and the services of its late Secretary, Mr. Cotterill, for the production of the Blue Book, which has done so much to bring the work of our schools into prominence; by the authorities on Naval Education, who have consulted us on more than one occasion; and last but not least by the Headmasters of Public Schools, whom we are accused of attempting to coerce, and who show their appreciation of this treatment by numerous Conferences with our Committee, carried on always in the most friendly spirit and full of good augury for the future. Then we come to the third object, the advance of Education. Our Chairman at the Conference of last year gave us an admirable historical summary of the action of the Association since 1892 with regard to the subjects taught in schools. This may be read in the *Review* for last March. It is unnecessary to go over the whole ground again. But what are the broad principles for which the Association has contended throughout this controversy? It has laid down the principle that early specialization is wrong, that the education of the young should aim at developing all faculties harmoniously, and that our present curriculum is inadequate, because it excludes (or thrusts into the background) the training of the faculty of observation by object-lessons and simple nature-study, and the training of hand and eye by (say) drawing. It has further urged that in the teaching of languages the mother tongue is neglected. It has been shown, and it is not denied, that the present form of

Entrance Scholarship Examination tends to encourage early specialization in Latin and Greek.

Now here is a perfectly plain issue. We are contending not for this man's fads nor for that man's fads, least of all against a Classical Education, but for a curriculum for young boys based on scientific principles. In reading the letters in the *P.S.R.* one wonders if the writers have ever heard of a science of Education. "Science," said Mark Pattison, "is the proper method of knowing and apprehending the facts in any department." If it can be shown that the present system of training is scientifically the best for young boys, let us by all means be content with the *status quo*. But, gentlemen, the weight of expert opinion both at home and abroad is entirely on the side of the wild revolutionists who are pilloried by the fervid letter-writers of the *P.S.R.* It so happens that this very question has been discussed this year in the Education Section of the British Association, where the following questions were propounded to those who were invited to read papers:—

(1) What subjects, if any, should all children first study in common?

(2) Whether the training should not in all cases necessarily include—

(a) Literary instruction.

(b) Practical instruction (science, drawing, manual and physical training).

The papers, which are very instructive, were printed at length in a supplement to the *School World* of September. I cannot do more than refer to the general conclusions reached in the discussion, which followed the reading of the papers. These were four in number:—

(1) That specialization should be deferred as late as possible (most speakers preferred 16).

(2) That in the early curriculum a good foundation should be laid in English, drawing, and elementary science (defined as object lessons followed by simple nature-study).

(3) That they deprecated the early specialization in classics as encouraged by the Public Schools.

(4) That training must be both literary and practical.

I may add that one speaker, the Chairman of the Educational Committee of the Teachers' Guild, gave a summary of the conclusions of thirty meetings of teachers, organized by the Guild to discuss the subject. I have before me the curriculum recommended by them, which coincides with that of the ordinary Preparatory School with this difference—that English, drawing, and elementary science take the place of Greek.

One of our critics censures the "priggish Germanolatry" of the writers in the Blue-book, and advocates the encouragement of a spirit of rational enquiry into foreign systems of education. He points to Mr. Sadler as "one of the few Englishmen who really understand the principles of German education," and quotes him triumphantly to this effect: "The Germans know that in order to specialize to advantage nine men out of ten need the equipment of a good general education." Gentlemen, I am sure that we all cordially agree; but this tells dead against his argument,

which is based on the calm assumption that Mr. Sadler means by a "good liberal education" a specialized classical education, and he implies (or his argument is without meaning) that the Germans teach Latin, Greek and French to all little boys at the same time. I am not one of those who think the German system of education one which could with advantage be imported into this country. In one thing, however, they are an example to us. They used the best brains in their country to find out the needs of the nation and to adapt a system of education to those needs—that is scientific method. But what really happens in Germany with regard to the training of young boys? Our critic appeals to Mr. Sadler; to Mr. Sadler he shall go. Mr. Sadler, in his paper read before the British Association, condemns root and branch the system of early specialization in classics, against which we are struggling, and adds later these words—"The scholarship system at the Public Schools is rapidly becoming an educational curse." He appends to his paper a table of German curricula, from which we learn that all German schools have a common foundation of non-classical education from 9 to 12 (French having six hours during all this period), and that in the Classical Gymnasien Latin begins at 12 and Greek at 14. I can only express a fervent hope that our critic before he again rushes into print will start his new society "for the encouragement of a spirit of rational enquiry into systems of foreign education."

Gentlemen, in February last a Joint Conference was held between a Sub-Committee of the Headmasters' Conference and five delegates from our Association to consider the difficulties of the Curriculum. At that meeting the resolution of our last Conference against three languages was discussed, and at our suggestion we each took a sheet of paper and tried to fit into a week of 32 hours all the subjects that a small boy ought to be taught in the last two years of his course at a Preparatory School. We failed; though we left out things which experts regard as essential, we used up 29 hours without getting in any Greek. At this point the Headmasters took fright and refused to face the conclusion. Having failed to solve our problem, they refused to admit that from an educational point of view there was anything to be said for our contention that we had too much to teach. Well, gentlemen, this is not very hopeful. I am a friend to Classical Education. I believe that there is no training like it for the boy that has the faculty, and that the classical sides of our Public Schools will always continue to attract some of the best brain power in the country. I want to see Latin kept in all our Preparatories and in all modern sides. To those who think that classical education is doomed I would commend the fact that in the highest technical schools in Germany (to which we have nothing exactly corresponding in this country) 70 per cent. of the students are drawn from the Classical Gymnasien, 27 per cent. from the Semi-classical Schools, and 3 per cent. only from the Modern. It is my belief that the extreme Classicists with their point blank refusal to widen the curriculum at the base or to apply to

it the scientific method, are the worst foes of a classical education. *Non tali auxilio nec defensoribus istis tempus eget.* A great responsibility rests on this Association, representing as it does the expert opinion of 300 schools. I hope and believe that it will go forward in the path of conservative reform. Our main duty is to improve the teaching of all subjects in our schools, and this we endeavour to do by such addresses as we are to listen to this afternoon; but if we honestly believe that the course of studies imposed upon us is of a narrowing and cramping character, we must not flinch from doing all that we lawfully can to get that course altered.

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY IN PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

The following address was delivered by A. J. HERBERTSON, Esq., Lecturer in Regional Geography, Oxford:—

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen,—The discussion which your Committee have done me the honour of asking me to open this afternoon is on the teaching of geography in Preparatory Schools. On considering the way in which I could most usefully deal with this topic it seemed to me that it would be best to emphasize its geographical rather than its pedagogical aspect. From the outset I desire to make it quite clear that I have come to offer suggestions about the teaching of geography and not to attempt to teach you your business. It would be impertinent for me to make any such attempt; moreover it would be superfluous, because I am sure that every one here feels that he is the proper person to teach his fellow members. I propose, therefore, to emphasize the geographical aspect of the subject, and to ask, first of all, "What is Geography?" next to point out how a proper conception of its scope and methods makes the subject of greater value educationally and economises time; and lastly, to make some suggestions as to the main divisions of any syllabus of geography drawn up for Preparatory Schools.

What is geography? False conceptions as to the scope of the subject are still all too rife. We have to remember that from the earliest periods geography has had two aspects. There has been the description of the known world of the time, and there has been the interpretation of the problems of geography. All accept the descriptive aspect of geography, but some deny that geography has any value as an interpreter; they declare that geography may have some commercial value, but it is of little use as a discipline. For these geography is not a science; it is merely a branch of knowledge.

It may be worth while, to make matters clearer, to look for a moment at the history of the development of geography in this country during the past century. The interest in geography has been two-fold. In the first place, there has been the keen interest due to the gradual exploration of the world, to the perennial interest in unknown lands, and in the thrilling stories which the explorers have brought back of their adventures. The Royal Geographical Society has been the centre of the

impetus to geographical discovery and to the preserving of interest in that aspect of the subject. In the second place, there has been the impetus given to the study of sea and air and water by the expansion of our carrying trade and of our colonial possessions, as well as by the need for better utilizing our home resources. Professor Gregory says that geography in this country has been preserved mainly through the action of South Kensington and its syllabuses; but I think that those of us who have had to do with South Kensington physiography have always been impressed by the small part of the syllabus devoted to geography, and we have looked upon it rather as an introduction to elementary science than as an introduction to geography. It has had a very considerable effect indeed throughout the country, but not a geographical one. It has given rise to misconceptions about geography, for those who, like Professor Gregory, confuse South Kensington physiography with the principles of geography, are given to saying that geography is simply a smattering of all sciences jumbled together without any definite logical connection.

It has been the misfortune of this country that there has been no Chair at the Universities—there has been no teacher of geography in our higher schools, to combat this notion. But in Germany, since the beginning of the nineteenth century there have been professors of geography, more particularly in Berlin, and later on, from the seventies onwards, in almost all the German Universities. The result is that we have to go to Germany for much of the raw material of geography, and it may be well for a moment to ask what is the German conception of the scope of geography? In Germany there are two schools of geographers: one, the successors of Humboldt, who have looked at the physical aspect of the world rather than at its human interests; and the other, the followers of Ritter, who have considered geography as a branch of history rather than as a branch of natural science. We naturally find two different definitions. In the case of the physical geographers, the most distinguished representative is Baron von Richthofen, who has just published a paper, wherein he considers that geography is the science of the Earth; that it deals with the scientific classification of the forms of the Earth's surface. He would say that biological geography and the geography of man were linking sciences which were partly geographical and partly biological in the one case, and partly geographical and partly human in the other. The other school, of which Professor Ratzel is the most famous representative, emphasizes the human side of geography perhaps a little too much, just as the Richthofen School tend to emphasize the physical side too much.

In America, too, there has been a great development of interest in the study of geography, and a number of chairs have been founded in different universities. The histories of the occupants of the chairs have very often determined the way in which they have looked at their subject. The best known of the American geographers is Professor W. M. Davies, of Harvard, a geologist who has become a

geographer, like many others on the Continent. He has recently thrown aside the purely physical conception of geography. He sees the need for a new science, which he calls "ontography," an expanded ecology. This he defines as the response which all living beings make to the impressions of their physical environment. He defines physical environment as physiography, which is quite a different use of the word from the one we are accustomed to in this country: and geography as the union of physiography and ontography, *i.e.*, the study of the physical environment and the response of life to its action.

In this country we have the disadvantage, or perhaps the benefit, of beginning our work later, and therefore of being able to take a slightly wider outlook. For a number of years, since the early eighties, when Dr. Keltie reported on the systems of teaching geography on the Continent to the Royal Geographical Society, there has been a tendency in this country to define geography as the science of distribution. This has led to the obvious criticism that geography is not a self-supporting science, that the distribution of climatic effects is part of meteorology, that the distribution of the surface features of the Earth is part of geology, that the distribution of plants is part of botany, and so on. There is a certain truth in this, for the raw material of geography is the distribution as determined by the geologist, the meteorologist, the botanist, and so on.

One effect of this conception is that the maps at present available for the study of geography are, if I may so express it, very rarely geographical. The ordnance map has been made for quite another purpose, by soldiers for soldiers. It has since been put to other uses, but that was the reason the map was made. The geological map has been made for the purposes of mining and the study of the soils, and it is based on the classifications of the geologist. The biological and anthropological maps are based on the classifications which belong to the special sciences for which they are made, the distribution of the phenomena studied by those special sciences being recorded on the maps. The geographer has to deal with all these distributions, and he finds that the ordinary classification of the geologist of the strata by their age is not fundamental for his purpose; that it is much more important for him to know whether a rock is granite or limestone than whether it is Palæozoic or Tertiary. In the cases of botanical or human distribution exactly the same thing occurs. In the case of man we want to get a different classification from that of the physical anthropologist. The shape of a man's skull is not the most important feature in a human being who has to be studied from the geographical point of view.

I should like to define geography rather differently, and to look at the subject matter of it from another point of view. In the last half of the nineteenth century the progress of all sciences was towards more and more minute analysis. We had the development of new instruments and methods, the perfection of the microscope, the perfection of histological methods, revealing a new world,

a microscopic world. The microscopic study of organisms and rocks and the study of micro-organisms has revolutionized the conceptions and even many of the actions of men during that period. Now it is time to look at the world from another point of view. Instead of microscopic we need a macroscopic vision. The geographer does not require to magnify the object of his study, he has to reduce it. The map is to the geographer what the microscopic specimen is to the histologist. The geographer is dealing with some macro-organism rather than with a micro-organism. The macro-organism for the geographer is a complex association of a certain stable frame-work, such as a river valley, or a coastal belt, or a mountain system, some definite piece of the Earth's surface, determined by the physical configuration, and with certain activities of moving air and moving water, with organic life both plant and animal on its surface, having seasonal variations, and man himself moving in it, acting on it, and very largely conditioned by it. "It is this complex of land, water, and air, and plant, animal, and man, considered as a unity, that is the subject matter of the geographer." He has to classify the world into typical macro-organisms of different orders. The number of fundamental types is comparatively small—a dozen or so—and what some geographers are trying to do at the present time is to divide the world into its macro-organisms or natural regions, and to compare one with another.

Take configuration. The distribution of land and water is fundamental. Next comes the question of the distribution of high and low land, and of the different varieties of high and low land, each with its own very special characteristics. Looking at the world as a whole, there are four great divisions of the land. First, the high land. Bordering the Pacific, there is a great mass of mountains which forms the western side of the American continent, and the eastern side of Asia, linked together by the Aleutian Islands, and it is prophesied that they will be linked together by another chain of a similar kind in the Antarctic regions. Between these another great chain of lofty mountains runs from east to west from the Pyrenees and the Alps in Europe, through the Himalayas, to the mountains of south-eastern Asia. In these two belts there is a definite type of configuration, and the main feature lines are the same, though the details differ. The main feature lines are a system of parallel ridges and valleys drawn out parallel to the main direction of the belt, and these are crossed more or less at right angles by subsidiary notches. Practically all the heights over 7,000 or 8,000 feet lie within these two belts, and associated with those two belts you have regions of great depression. It is as if one had a great wave, a wave of great mountains, descending to the great trough of the ocean, for round the Pacific Ocean lie the greatest depths within a short distance of the greatest heights, and in the Old World the Mediterranean and the alluvial plains of Mesopotamia and India. Notice the effect of this on lines of communication. Everywhere these systems form a barrier, and it is only by

the notches that it is possible to have communication across the barrier. There is a definite distribution of rivers, a definite distribution of routes, and, to a certain extent, a definite distribution of towns, in those two great belts. In the case of the Pacific, of course, so much of the land is submerged that one does not see the importance of the trough. In the case of the mid-world mountains the importance of the trough is fundamental, both in modern problems of communication and in dealing with the movements of peoples in the past.

There is another type of land of considerable elevation, where the rocks are not folded into ridge and furrow. The true table lands of the world extend from Central Australia, by India, Arabia, and Africa, and the eastern part of South America, and may have formed part of an immense continent. The feature lines are determined by great fractures, of which the most significant, besides those which form the coast lines of the continents, and determine the narrow shelf that borders this land mass, is the rift which runs from Lake Nyasa, in Africa, to the east of Africa, by the Red Sea and Jordan Valley, until it ends abruptly against the folded mountains close to Antioch. Along that line of rupture, as along the young folded mountains, many volcanoes are distributed, and except where there are great rifts or young folded mountains there are few volcanoes. In the case of the Pacific Ocean one cannot dogmatize about the relation of the volcanoes to physical characteristics, but it is probable that even there this would be found to be true.

In one or two parts of the world, in the northern hemisphere, the horizontal rocks are not raised much above the surface. They form the greater part of Eastern Siberia and of America, between the Rocky Mountains system and Hudson Bay. Parts of the low lands of the world are not due to flat rocks at all, but to modern deposits, such as Western Siberia or the Plate Basin. But still a third type of low lands can be found in Belgium, for instance, where the rocks are neither young nor horizontal, but crumbled in all sorts of complex ways.

That is the last stage of the fourth type of surface forms—those due mainly to denudation. The Highlands of Scotland, a typical example, were at one time a great mountain region, but were dwindled almost to a plain, which was ultimately elevated. In this plateau the present features were formed by the eating out of the valleys, not by the elevation of the mountains, and give rise to another kind of distribution of routes and towns.

A recognition of these different types of distribution is of practical importance, for instance, to a soldier, because the movements of troops will be quite different in a region such as the Alps from the movements which are possible in a region such as the Black Forest or the hilly lands of Central Germany. Such classifications are of greater importance to the teacher, for they save much time in the teaching of geography. For instance, the Thames basin consists of a series of flat plains, broken by lines of heights which have, as a rule, one steep slope and a gentle

slope. This is also a characteristic of the basin of the Seine, and of German Jura region. For any one who has studied the topography of the Thames basin the learning of that of the Seine or of the Franconian regions is merely a matter of new details and names; the general principles are the same in all three regions.

Configuration is the fundamental framework of the natural region; the great variable is climate. The climates of different regions are usually described as a body of facts related to each region and to it alone; instead of being grouped into some dozen fundamental types. Even the ordinary meteorological maps are not quite satisfactory, for all the lines of temperature or pressure or rainfall represented by the meteorologist are not of equal significance to the geographer. Certain lines are fundamental; many others are of comparatively little importance. The trained teacher of geography will not set his pupils to study the trends of all the isotherms in the ordinary meteorological map when it is sufficient to examine two or three. The most important line of temperature is that of 50° F. for the warmest month, because beyond that line few economic plants can be cultivated, consequently the trend of the line of 50° F. is one of those fundamental facts which ought to be learnt at a comparatively early age by all students of geography. Even more important than temperature is the distribution of rainfall, because, given a sufficient temperature, the rainfall largely determines the characteristic plants. How few school atlases contain maps showing the amount and seasonal distribution of rainfall!

Time will not permit me to deal with the classification of climates, but I should like to show that by studying one type of climate it is possible to understand the climatic conditions of more than one region, and to obtain a key to the distribution of plant formations at the same time. Consider the Mediterranean region with its mild winters and fairly hot summers. The extremes of temperature are greater than with us, but for the latitude this region is not one of great extremes. It has very dry summers, and rain falls either in winter or spring and autumn. A plant which receives moisture in winter has quite a different constitution and history from the plant which receives moisture in the summer. Hence certain kinds of plants are practically confined to the Mediterranean climatic region and to other parts of the globe which have exactly similar climate. These are South California, Central Chile, South-west Cape Colony, South-west and South Australia. With few exceptions the characteristic economic plants which flourish in all these regions are the same. Hence, if the climate and the economic plants associated with it for the European Mediterranean have been mastered, it is only necessary to learn the differences in configuration and soil to grasp their climatic and vegetative characteristics. These are essential preliminaries to the understanding of the existing economic conditions; but for this it is further necessary to take into account the human history of the region.

I might go on to show by many examples how climatic conditions help to determine the type of vegetation, and

how both exert a decided influence on the nature of the occupations of men, and therefore on the density of population and even on the type of social organization. But what I want to emphasize now is, that we may divide the world into natural regions, that those natural regions may be grouped into a few types, each of which has some half-dozen varieties, and that once the general characteristics of one type are recognized the characteristics of its varieties are very easily acquired. This gives to geography an educational value, which is lacking in the older conceptions.

Let me say a word or two as to the way in which I should apply modern geographical conceptions to the teaching of geography to boys even of the ages that are to be found in Preparatory Schools. First of all, it is necessary to study local conditions.¹ There is no good in trying to teach detailed geography of other parts of the world until the geography of the home area is pretty well known. But in studying the home area I do not believe in beginning with the mechanical drawing of plans of tables or even of the school-room itself. I think it is very much better to deal with the living world than with the artificial world of the school-room and play-ground. In fact, geography must emerge out of nature-study. At an early age neither geography nor any other special subject should be differentiated; but, beginning with nature-study, as the pupil grows older certain ways of looking at the world around should be emphasized, and of these the geographical is to most children an extremely interesting one. In addition to nature-study I think that for the younger children a knowledge of the wider world is best obtained from stories of life and adventure, and of wonderful natural phenomena in other lands. From the very first associate these stories with definite localities on the globe. Use a simple globe with little on it, and point out upon it the place to which the story refers. In that way, by associating a certain point on the globe with certain stories, you build up in children's minds certain conceptions of the characteristics of different parts of the world.

The second stage, after nature-study, seems to me to be the more systematic study of the local geography, the observation of the distribution of high and low land, the way in which the streams run, and of the phenomena associated with running water. At this stage I think children can be taught to understand the ordnance map. I know that some people think the ordnance map is something extremely difficult to understand, but my own experience of one or two children has been that the main features of an ordnance map are comparatively easily understood by a boy of nine or ten years of age. The next wider area to take after the home region is the region that is in closest touch with it. In the case of a sea-port like Liverpool that might be the ports to which the ships go, but in a region such as this of south-eastern England undoubtedly it is the district which is tributary to London. With this extension of the study of the local geography to the geography of the surrounding district I should associate the beginning of the study of the geography of the world

I think that ought to be introduced at a fairly early age. The stories will have aroused an interest and given a certain knowledge of the main features which ought at this stage to be drawn together. The outlines of the continents, the distribution of high and low land in the most general terms, for instance, the eastern mountains and the western mountains of America, with three or four rivers, quite suffice to explain the main outlines of a continent. It might be desirable to point out the contrast between a continent like Africa and a continent like South America, and this could be associated with tales of exploration, the different configurations giving rise to different difficulties in the opening up of the continents. The position of one or two of the more important cities should be pointed out and as far as is possible explained in terms of the natural features.

Then in the last years of Preparatory School life, the British Isles might be studied, a natural extension from the home district through the wider region to the whole of the British Isles. In the case of the continents one would pass on to consider not merely the outlines and the positions of the main slopes, rivers, and large towns, but also the chief climatic conditions and characteristic vegetation, and to give some conception of the different kinds of life that are controlled by those conditions. This is far more important than a knowledge of the political divisions of the globe, the chief of which, however, might be learned at this stage. In the British Isles one would also begin to emphasize the less obvious features, the climatic conditions, and the control that the climate exercises over the distribution of vegetation; for instance, the contrast between the pasture lands of the west and the wheat lands of the east, leading up to the study of the more densely populated regions of the east and the less densely populated regions of the west. Then some notice should be taken of the mineral and industrial centres, which have to be correlated with the physical features of the country, and cannot very well be systematized without considering the geological conditions. Very little geology is necessary. It ought to be a geology which distinguishes an igneous rock from a sedimentary rock, a sand-stone from a lime-stone or shale, rather than a geology based on the different fossils.

In this way, by starting from the conditions with which the pupil is familiar on the one hand, and by giving him tales of the wider world on the other, by enlarging the area of study from the home district outwards, by altering the aspects in which the world as a whole is regarded, a sufficient knowledge of geography would be given in the Preparatory Schools, I think, to fit a pupil to enter a Public School where the more detailed geography should be taught.

THE CHAIRMAN: I should like, on behalf of the Conference, to offer our sincere thanks to Mr. Herbertson, for the most interesting address he has given us. I may say that Mr. Herbertson's time is strictly limited, but he is ready, as far as time allows, to answer any questions that may be addressed to him.

REV. LEWIS EVANS asked whether the best text-books on geography were not printed in America.

REV. C. BLACK inquired whether the stereoscope would not be useful for the purpose of illustrating the processes of erosion and degradation.

MR. LYNAM said he would like to have heard some vindication of the value of geography as a means of training the mind. The teaching of geography assumed that the subject had a value apart from that of a collection of facts such as could be obtained from any gazetteer or cyclopaedia; and what the Association really wanted was to be shown how geography could be best utilised to train the minds of pupils in habits of observation, comparison, and comparative estimation, which would enable them afterwards to approach from a right point of view subjects involving a certain amount of geographical knowledge—economical, political, and historical subjects.

REV. F. BURROWS remarked that one of the questions asked when the recent Blue-book was in course of preparation was, "Do you consider that geography has any intellectual value?" and he was greatly surprised to find that many members of the Association considered that it had not. As to the time to be given to the teaching of the subject, he thought the ideal was three hours a week, but in Preparatory Schools it worked out at about one and one-third hours, and the consensus of opinion as shown in the Blue-book seemed to be that there was not time to teach the subject properly. A special class of man was required to teach geography. Text-books were not of much use: the teacher should get as much information on the subject as he could, and then pour it out until the class understood it.

MR. HERBERTSON, in reply to questions, said that the report of the Nature Study Exhibition held in London about a year and a half back, would give information as to books on that subject. As to text books on geography, the Geographical Association had organised an exhibition, to be opened at the South-Western Polytechnic, Chelsea, on January 5th, which would be shown in many towns. In it there would be a collection of English, French, German, and American text-books and of wall-maps which would be of great interest to all teachers of geography. The American text-books were certainly the best illustrated text-books, being worth buying for their illustrations alone; the French were the most logical and useful for the teacher. As to the number of hours to be given to the subject, one hour per week was ridiculous; he preferred three, but the best trained man could do most in least time. The man as much as the time-table required attention. The stereoscope was a most valuable piece of apparatus, as it gave a reality to pictures not otherwise obtainable. The processes of denudation were so slow that unless the changing action on a roadside during a deluge of rain could be photographed, it was almost impossible to depict active erosion, but photographs could be taken in different places, which illustrated the whole sequence of forms. The difficulty of obtaining up-to-date maps was felt by every one. It was impossible to buy every map as it was published, but his own plan was to buy a new standard atlas every two years

or so. The great Stieler Atlas, the standard reference atlas of the world, was just being republished in monthly parts at a total cost of 30s. and was well worth buying. The one-inch ordnance survey sheets were now supplied to schools at very low prices, according to the number of copies ordered and the style of sheet chosen. The twenty-five inch and even six inch sheets made most effective wall maps if the roads, rivers, woods, etc., were marked in colours. Many exercises could be carried out with ordnance maps. One good plan was to send a boy out to find a particular place by the map, or paper-chases could be arranged by a similar means. In fact, the geography lessons should be associated with arithmetic, English, and all other lessons wherever possible, and by that means much economy of time would be effected.

He believed geography to be one of the most valuable subjects, both from a practical and from an educational point of view. It was necessary to recognize that all geography was not fitted for all children; it was necessary to study what aspects of the subject were suitable for boys of the age with which they had to deal. Moreover, the ordinary text-books did not present the facts in the order in which they should be taught to children, and they contained many facts which should not be taught to children at all.

Teachers should guard against teaching any detail which had not a definite bearing on the lesson; they should aim at giving their pupils geographical conceptions rather than detailed facts. What was required was the power of thinking in terms of space, not a detailed knowledge of the peculiarities of the surface of the globe.

It was all important for schoolmasters to recognize that they were teaching boys whose lives would not be of much importance, except to themselves and their families, for twenty or thirty years after the time when they were being taught, so that a teacher had always to bear in mind that he was training his pupils to meet circumstances which would exist perhaps a generation hence. Geography was one of the best subjects for training the mind to contemplate not merely the present but the future. Preparatory schoolmasters were preparing boys who would enter the Army or Navy or the Civil Service, or would become administrators in different parts of the Empire, of local government, or of great private concerns, and these were just the people who most needed a sound geographical knowledge.

A MEMBER pointed out that 200 was the lowest number of copies of the ordnance maps that could be secured at the cheap rates. This was not much of a concession so far as Preparatory Schools were concerned, and he suggested that the Committee should be instructed to act as agents for the schools, so that the schools requiring a smaller number could take advantage of the concession.

MR. HERBERTSON said the reason that less than 200 copies could not be supplied at the cheap rates was that it cost nearly as much to print 100 copies as 200, and the latter quantity was supplied practically at cost price. The cost of 200 copies of the outline map was only 25s., which

spread over four or five years represented a very small annual outlay. The hill-shaded maps cost a little more.*

* N.B.—The sheets of the six inch to the mile and the four and ten miles to the inch maps can now be purchased in cheap editions. See *Geographical Teacher* for February, 1904.

THE NEW METHOD OF TEACHING FRENCH, AND ITS APPLICATION TO ENGLISH PRE- PARATORY SCHOOLS.

The following address was delivered by OTTO SIEPMANN, Esq. (Clifton):—

Mr. Chairman, and Gentlemen,—Allow me in the first place to thank you and your Committee for kindly inviting me to address you to-day; and then let me ask your indulgence if I have not carefully prepared a paper for you, and let me hope that you will not expect from me a learned address. I have come here as a practical schoolmaster, and I wish to talk about a practical question in a plain manner.

Novelty is an article which has always been in request the world over, and it undeniably has some attractions even for the most conservative people. No wonder then, if men of every profession and trade who wish to attract notice have at all times labelled their inventions and methods as "new." Especially is this epithet applied to methods designed to meet cases of great difficulty, such as, for example, the learning of a foreign language. On every occasion when a method of this kind is brought before the world we find that it receives a warm welcome, especially from the inexperienced teachers and learners, because it is hoped that at last some genius has discovered a panacea for all drudgery, for all hard grind, and that henceforth long persevering study will be no longer needed to reach the end desired. There are, on the other hand, men who know from long experience that the task of learning a foreign language is beset with great difficulties which nothing but sheer ignorance can underrate and which nothing but long continued and patient labour can overcome. Teachers and students of this class are wont to look askance at these new methods, and to dismiss them without a thought. But as the inexperienced and ignorant form the large majority, the title "new method" has never lost its charm for those who wish to make a sensation. As long ago as 1592 there appeared one of these new methods professing '*to teach in a very short time and in a very easy way how to pronounce French naturally, read it perfectly, write it easily, and speak it fluently.*' Since then down to our own time many others have come and gone. They have failed to retain a permanent hold on the public because they promised impossibilities. They all pretended to get to the kernel without cracking the nut; they were all one-sided and based on insufficient knowledge of the science of language. "Novelty has something in it which inebriates the fancy and not infrequently is as transitory in its effects as other intoxication, leaving the poor patient, as usual, with an aching heart." In recent years the latest

new method has made its appearance, and it is with this that I wish to deal more particularly to-day. I do not propose to hail it as a panacea or to dismiss it without a thought, but to examine it carefully on its merits in the light of practical experience.

Before doing so it may be interesting shortly to review its history. It is significant that the reform movement received its first impulse from a work entitled "*Zur Reform des lateinischen Unterrichts,*" by Dr. Hermann Perthes, which appeared in 1873-75. Since then the question of the method of teaching modern languages has gradually come to be one of the burning questions of the day as well in Europe as in America. Since the appearance of Professor Viator's pamphlet "*Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren*" in 1886 and the formation of the Association Phonétique in Paris, the subject has been a standard topic at numerous conferences in Germany, France, England and America, and has led to the publication of at least three periodicals and numberless pamphlets and articles in educational books and reviews and in many daily papers. Moreover a flood of school-books written on reform lines have appeared. The authors of these contributions, however, are far from being agreed on the principles which should be followed. Their opinions are widely divergent, and largely, even diametrically opposed one to another. What is generally understood by the "New Method" in this country is the adoption of the principles of the extreme party of reformers on the Continent of which Professors Viator (Marburg) and Paul Passy (Paris) are the leading champions, and whose views have been followed in certain French text-books in England. These gentlemen, as far as I understand them, are of opinion that the method which has been applied to the teaching of modern languages during the last fifty years both on the Continent and in this country is fundamentally wrong and must be given up altogether. What they lay down as essential for the teaching of French, as far as Preparatory Schools are concerned, may be summed up as follows:—(1) The pupil should learn French in very much the same way as he has learned his mother tongue; that is to say, by the direct association of the French words with the objects or pictures of the objects the names of which he learns; (2) The lessons should be carried on almost entirely in French; translation into English should be avoided as much as possible so as to keep up the direct association of the French words with the thought they represent; (3) Translation into French is not only useless, but positively harmful; (4) Grammar should be kept in the background until the pupil has acquired a fair knowledge of the spoken language; (5) Class-books should be written entirely in French, no French-English or English-French vocabularies or dictionaries should be allowed, whatever grammatical instruction is given should be given in French, and whatever grammar is used should also be written in French; (6) The natural surroundings of the child should be made the starting-point in the teaching of French, and 'Realien,' that is to say, a knowledge of France and the French,

their customs and habits, their institutions, trade, and industries, should be imparted.

It will be observed that the introduction of this system makes a fairly clean sweep of the traditional mode of teaching French, and that the aim of the new method, at the Preparatory School stage at any rate, is to be purely utilitarian—the ability to understand, speak, and write colloquial French. The French Ministry of Education has frankly adopted this accomplishment as the ideal of modern language teaching in France. I will read to you the words which make this startling confession to the world. “On renoncera résolument à faire de l’enseignement des langues vivantes soit une gymnastique intellectuelle, soit un moyen de culture littéraire.”

In Germany, America, and England, only comparatively few teachers so far have accepted the new method in this pure and unadulterated form, but certain concessions have been made by most practical and experienced teachers to the demands of the reformers.

The question arises as to whether we are prepared to accept any of the principles advocated by the champions of the new method, and whether we are willing to throw mental discipline and literary culture to the winds for the sake of greater fluency in speaking. I will take the various points seriatim and state what my own experience tells me they are worth.

(1) *The pupil should learn French very much in the same way as he learned his mother tongue; that is, by the direct association of the French words with the objects or pictures of the objects the names of which he learns.*

The reason given for this alluring mode of procedure is that in this manner the pupil will learn the language in the most natural way and will avoid English altogether. He will associate the words immediately with the thing, and no English will interfere when he wishes to express himself in French. For example:—instead of telling a class that ‘a dog’ is in French ‘un chien,’ a living dog is shown and the teacher says, ‘Voilà un chien.’ Of course it is not always easy to show the real object; in that case pictures may be substituted. There is no harm done by doing so, but I think if you try seriously to follow this idea out harm will soon come; that is to say, many cases will arise when you think you are giving the boy a certain idea, and the boy mistakes you and conceives another idea. It is difficult indeed to ascertain whether a pupil really grasps what you say unless you test him through the medium of English. Professor Sweet, referring to this point in his book, *A Practical Study of Languages*, says:—“Now the great advantage of a word as opposed to a picture, is that it is practically an epitome of this whole group of ideas, and the equation *chapeau* *Hut* enables a German to transfer bodily such a group of ideas from his own to the foreign word. This the picture cannot do; for even if we ignore everything but the shape of the hat, we must either give pictures of every conceivable shape of hat—tall, hard-felt, soft-felt, clerical, sailor, cocked, etc.; or

else risk implying that *chapeau* means tall hat, not hat in general.”

Therefore it seems rather doubtful whether it is wise to go very far in the direction of teaching new words by objects or pictures *only* and without making quite sure that the pupil really understands what the teacher means. The easiest way of doing this is, of course, to give the pupil the English equivalent, or ask him for it. There is no mistake then; we all know where we are. Moreover it is not easy to produce either the object or a picture when you come to qualities and abstract ideas. However, to show you how such a difficulty is to be overcome, I will give you one little illustration from a book entitled *Hints on teaching French*, which explains how the new method should be worked. In trying to convey to the pupils the meaning of the sentence, “La poule est utile,” the author says,—The pupil may hesitate about ‘utile,’ but he will be greatly helped if you point to hat, horse, cherry-tree, and say that ‘la poule’ has this quality in common with them, and he will scarcely remain uncertain when he is told that the caterpillar has just the opposite quality. Or the teacher may proceed as follows:—Can I say, “La poule est fidèle”? No; that quality is the reason why we keep dogs. We keep hens because of their eggs; therefore we say “La poule est utile.”—I expect it must take a teacher five minutes to go through this ingenious process of conveying to boys the meaning of ‘utile,’ and what is more, I am doubtful whether they would know what “la poule est utile” means after all this. My way would be to say, “La poule est utile” is in English “The hen is useful.”

A little story which I read in an educational paper and which bears on this point may not be out of place. An inspector examined one of the brilliant classes taught on the New Method, where nothing but French is spoken. The inspector at some stage in the lesson made an observation, and the master replied, “C’est une bonne idée.” The inspector thought this would be a good opportunity for testing the pupils as to their power of understanding a simple French sentence which had not been prepared beforehand, so he asked the class whether they had caught the meaning of the sentence the master had said. The prompt answer was of course “Oui, Monsieur.” But when he asked a boy to say it in English, he received for a reply “It’s a bonny day!” I have quoted elsewhere another example which is equally interesting. The boys had read a passage on the death of Cæsar; when the Conspirators come into the Senate, Brutus walks up to Cæsar, and the others are in great consternation because they think they will be betrayed; but Brutus turns round, and the passage goes on: “Il les rassura d’un coup d’œil.” This passage had been previously read and was supposed to be known as part of the term’s work. On being asked in French “Que fit-il? Qui est-ce qu’il rassura? Comment les rassura-t-il?” the boys answered correctly, and the master was evidently satisfied that the boys knew perfectly well what all this meant. I took the liberty of asking them

what it meant in English, and the answer I received was, "He re-assured them with a blow in the eye!" Gentlemen, this is no doubt amusing, but to have our schools invaded by a method which proceeds on those lines seems to me very serious indeed.

I think you will agree with me that it is practically impossible to avoid English, and it is also scientifically unsound. The idea that you will always translate from English when you wish to speak French if you have learnt the word first through the medium of English is absurd. If I understand the process aright it comes to this. When I show my watch to a class and say, "Voilà une montre!" it is a delusion and a snare to imagine that I have thereby avoided the English word "watch," for the moment I raise my watch, the word "watch" is in their minds, even before I have time to say "une montre." So I have plainly failed to produce the desired effect. The moment I move my hand the pupil is following me with his thoughts in English. If I touch a pen and say, "Voilà une plume," he has the word "pen" in his mind before I say "plume." These are facts, and nobody can get round them. And I do not think there is any reason for getting round them; in fact I am convinced that it does not matter in the least how the word gets into the pupil's head the first time, whether through English, or from a picture, or from the thing itself. In whatever way a pupil has learned the word "montre" when he wishes to use it in French the word 'watch' occurs for some time to his mind first, but the English by-and-by. When a boy has seen and named a watch or used the French for "watch" or any other word say, fifty times, and I show him the article or call up the French in his mind by the corresponding English word, he will gradually use the word without associating it with the word in the mother tongue. That is the whole point. What is called "thinking in a foreign language" is to my mind nothing else but the art of casting thoughts very quickly into the mould of a foreign language. You will never be able to do that until you have practised words and phrases very much in the same way as a musician practises his scales. Repeat them often enough and I think you will find that the link that lies between the object and the French, the translating link, will vanish gradually and completely, whether you learnt the words representing the thoughts originally from English or from a picture or from an object.

Both on theoretical and on practical grounds the removal of English from our French lessons, therefore, would be a great mistake, as it would lead to disastrous results.

(2) The second article of the new creed is: *Translation into English should be avoided as much as possible*; no doubt for the same reason. Most of us attach a certain disciplinary value to translation, and it may have struck you that there is something wanting in the confession of faith of the followers of the new method. You will find nowhere any allusion to what I would call training of the intellect, accurate thinking, mental discipline. That is absolutely absent, and no such appeal is made. At the initial stages

everything is learnt by sheer imitation and memory. Now, I consider translation into English, apart from being an excellent test to find out whether pupils know what the French means, is an excellent mental discipline. To translate even a simple piece of French into English is no mean mental performance for a boy of twelve or thirteen years of age; that is to say, to translate the thought accurately into the other language without adding anything to it and without taking anything from it is a piece of work which a boy is generally capable of doing, and which it would be a thousand pities not to get him to do.

The next point is that *translation into French should be barred altogether as positively harmful*. I quite understand that teachers who have taught their boys on the system which I have been trying to describe to you would fight shy of subjecting their pupils to an examination in which they were asked to reproduce a given piece of English in French. They do not like to undertake such a task, because, they say, translation is an art that lies beyond the reach of school-boys, and constant translation does not teach one to speak a language. That is true in a certain sense, no doubt; that is to say, if I were to undertake to translate Ruskin into French or German I should find it required great art: but there is translation and translation, and there is plenty of translation which is an art that can be performed at all ages of school life, even the very lowest, though it may be questionable whether it is wise to insist on it there. Translation into French is to be replaced by what is called "Free Composition." That, no doubt, is very much easier, because if I want to express my thoughts about this room and I do not know what "ceiling" means in French I shall not say anything about the ceiling. Or if I form in my mind a certain construction in English, which I want to put down in French and in which the word "although" occurs, I at once remember that there is something uncanny about "quoique" and I am not going to use it. That is a convenient way of dealing with difficulties, but it is not education. However, we are told that the boys' productions are original. They are indeed! All the difficulties are avoided, and I cannot see how they are to add to their knowledge, because as soon as they have a certain limited vocabulary and a certain power of framing a sentence in French they will never get any further. If instead of asking the pupil to write a free composition you give him a piece of English to translate, he may find himself face to face with a sentence beginning with "although," and then there is no getting out of it, he must now show his hand. That is a very different matter, and it is a very much more severe test than that of writing a piece of free composition. The question would be whether this test is too severe to apply to a child in a Preparatory School. I believe it is a very severe test at the beginning, and I think it would be well to avoid translation into French during the first year. But those of you who do not agree with me may safely try translation into French at the earliest stage, and I do not think very serious harm will arise from doing so.

But as an experiment I should like to leave it alone for twelve months.

(4) *The systematic study of Grammar should be kept in the background until the pupil has acquired a fair knowledge of the spoken language.* I have tried this plan myself for a term in the bottom form of our Junior School, because I thought that, if it failed, the least harm would be done there. My results were these. At the end of that term most of the boys could pronounce quite nicely, and they could speak to some extent; but when they came to writing it was rather different, they had lost, what I might call, their "grammatical conscience." My further experience is derived from examining several schools in which French had been taught by the New Method. In one of them the teacher was one of the most enthusiastic reformers; he took endless trouble to carry out the new ideas; but after two years I was only able to say that the pupils certainly had advanced in pronunciation, that they could understand a little French that was spoken to them, but all the written work was so deplorable that I came to the conclusion that if that was to be the result of the New Method in English schools it would be better to dispense with modern languages altogether and to teach something else. I do not think, however, that English schoolmasters, as a rule, will be prepared to give any subject an important place in their schools that is not a valuable educational instrument. Now, I am strongly of opinion that modern languages if properly taught are a suitable subject for the development of accurate thinking and literary taste, in short, for a real liberal education. Though I am not one of those who fall foul of the Classics, and although I am convinced that there is no mental or literary training that is superior to that which can be obtained from a sound study of the Classics, I find that there are many boys who have not the aptitude to get to that stage of their Classics where the great wealth of classical literature will produce its results, and for those boys it is perhaps better to proceed along the lines of modern languages, which, after all, must give a somewhat similar training as the classical languages, both in mental discipline and literary culture. One of the reasons why sound teaching of all that is essential in grammar should be insisted on at all stages is that, as in the case of translation, it is an excellent means for mental training. I would retain it also for a practical reason, which I have already alluded to, that unless a boy knows his grammar he cannot speak or write correctly. Any one who is taught by the New Method may acquire a fair pronunciation and a certain power of expressing himself in French, but he does not learn the language. He can only talk waiter or courier French, and to learn to do that is not of sufficient educational value to make French an important subject in a Preparatory or a Public School.

(5) *Class-books should be written entirely in French, no more French-English or English-French vocabularies or dictionaries should be allowed, and whatever grammar instruction is given should be given in French, and when a grammar is used, it should also be written in French.* I need

not repeat here what I said about the importance of being quite clear in one's teaching and the dangers that arise when we try to avoid the mother tongue. Additional difficulties appear when a grammar is used which is written in French; the pupils find it exceedingly difficult to learn from such a book; they are slower to grasp in their minds and to retain in their memories what is presented in a foreign tongue. Also the use of dictionaries written entirely in French has its drawbacks. I will give you an illustration of one aspect of the question, which is the result of an experiment which I made the other day when one of my colleagues came in who takes an interest in these matters—I was trying to find out the meaning of the word ' tiroir ' by the New Method. I found

(a) Tiroir, s.m. petite caisse qui s'emboîte dans un meuble, au moyen de deux coulisses, et qui se tire.

(b) Caisse, s.f. (L.capsa, boîte) coffre en bois pour l'emballage; coffre-fort; bureau où l'on paye; tambour.

(c) Coulisse, s.f., rainure sur laquelle on fait glisser un châssis; rempli d'une étoffe dans laquelle on passe un lacet; le lacet même; se dit, au théâtre, des châssis de toile mobiles qui forment la décoration des deux côtés de la scène; lieu hors du parquet des agents de change à la Bourse.

Here my friend interrupted my further research into the mysteries of the meaning of ' tiroir ' by suggesting that the word would not be at all a bad one to set as a holiday task. All this comes back to the same point. If I want my pupils to have clear ideas in their minds I must present these ideas in the first place in English; and if I want a boy to know what ' un tiroir ' is, the simplest and clearest way is to tell him in English that it means ' a drawer. ' I may add that the Government of Prussia have forbidden in their schools the use of books that are printed entirely in a foreign language.

I need not tell you who are practical teachers what a difficult thing it is to bring home to a set of twenty boys even the simplest grammatical rule, and I will not lose a minute in explaining what the result would be if you were to try to do this in a foreign tongue. The idea is so futile that it is really not worth discussing. On the whole, every explanation that breaks new ground must be given in the first instance in the mother tongue, and, therefore, grammars and dictionaries entirely written in French are a real danger to sound teaching.

(6) *A knowledge of France and the French should be taught.* This seems to me a sensible idea, and in the proper place of a well organized curriculum a certain amount of instruction in ' Realien, ' i.e., the study of French life and institutions should be given; only it must not degenerate into unimportant trifles and must not interfere with the reading of good literature. " Realien " might have a certain place in the middle part of a Public School. But we should never lose sight of the main object we have in teaching French, viz., to develop the pupil's mind and to acquaint him with the classical literature of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and the great literary productions of the nineteenth century.

I have tried in a somewhat crude way perhaps to demolish this magnificent structure of the method which has bewitched so many teachers, especially in England. I come now to the constructive part of my address. I believe you will be interested to hear something about phonetics. Phonetics are not necessarily included in the programme of the new method. There are representatives of the new method who think they can teach pronunciation quite well without phonetics. I was one of the adherents of this view only a few years ago. I tried to teach French without phonetics because I thought the spelling of French indicated sufficiently what the pronunciation ought to be. I have since made experiments in various classes and have come to the conclusion that the phonetic system is undoubtedly a great help. But I do not think it is necessary for a teacher of French to become a great student of phonetics. All that is required is the determination to take the matter up seriously. It means in the first place the learning of a new alphabet, or rather of a dozen signs which do not exist in the ordinary alphabet. You who are acquainted with the teaching of the Greek alphabet will admit at once that there is no very great difficulty in teaching boys a dozen new letters. It is, however, important that each sound should be learnt in connection with each sign, and that the pupils should understand clearly that in the phonetic alphabet each letter stands for one sound and for one definite sound only. If I write in phonetics an ordinary 'o' this letter will always represent the vowel in French (*mot*) and never that of 'pomme.' The sign used for the vowel of 'pomme' in the alphabet of the Association Phonétique, which is the most practical phonetic alphabet, is 'c' upside down, *vis.* 3, which is easily written and is quite distinct. It takes a fortnight at the rate of four hours a week to teach the signs and the sounds. There is some difficulty to be overcome with vowels like *é* in French *été*, because the pupil will take this sound to be identical with 'a' in English 'late,' and it will be necessary to make it clear to him that 'a' in 'late' consists of two sounds in English. Gradually you get the pupil to hear for himself that he really utters a diphthong every time he pronounces the letter 'a,' and then he will be prepared to pronounce *été* properly. These are only a few instances to show you how important it is to analyze the sounds of one's own speech and of the language which one is going to teach, if a good pronunciation is to be taught. As soon as the sounds have been mastered individually and the signs representing them have been learnt, the pupil proceeds to read a phonetically printed text. The ordinary spelling is withheld, and practice in reading and pronunciation is derived entirely from oral lessons and the reading of transcribed passages. The help afforded by the phonetic transcription is very considerable, but it must not be expected to do everything. It is absurd to think that it is easier to pronounce the vowel of 'mur' when the word is printed phonetically. The sounds must be taught by the teacher. When that has been done, the help of phonetics becomes apparent, because the pupil finds it quite easy to

keep his pronunciation right as long as he has the phonetic transcript before him, which clearly tells him which sound he has to use, whilst on the other hand the ordinary orthography would mislead him over and over again, because it represents the same sound in several ways (*mot*, *beau*, *chevaux*), and uses one sign for different sounds (*mot*, *pomme*.) A Frenchman may teach a class for a considerable time and yet the boys may not pronounce at all correctly, even if the teacher has paid great attention to pronunciation. The reason for this is that only a few boys can learn to pronounce properly by mere imitation, while the whole class will acquire a good pronunciation if the master *teaches* the sounds properly and makes the pupils practise on phonetic texts until their pronunciation is established. It is necessary that the teacher should not only know how to pronounce himself but should also be able to explain how the correct sounds are formed. He should, for instance, show his pupils that the vowel in 'vue' is the same as in 'vie,' only that in 'vue' the lips protrude. I hope I have made my position about phonetics clear to you, and have little doubt that any of you who may try to work their beginners' classes on phonetics will endorse what I have said. To sum up: my proposal would be—(1) That in a preliminary course on phonetics, covering the first fortnight of a boy's first term in French, the individual sounds should be taught and *pari passu* the phonetic symbols representing them. (2) That the main object of a first term's French course should be to impart a good pronunciation by the help of phonetically transcribed texts. (3) That the lessons should be entirely oral (speaking and reading), and that no writing should be done and no book containing texts printed in ordinary spelling be put into the hands of the pupil.

A sound basis being laid for a good pronunciation of French, I would then proceed to teach in the second term to read and write in the ordinary orthography the same lessons with which the pupils in the previous term have been made familiar orally.

I will now attempt to sketch a French lesson such as I imagine will commend itself to Preparatory Schoolmasters: x
(1) Develop the vocabulary of the lesson with the help of concrete objects or from a wall picture, giving at the same time the English of each word. The use of objects and pictures used with proper discretion is to be commended, inasmuch as it helps to make the impression on the mind more vivid and therefore more lasting, but no restriction must be laid down with regard to the use of the mother tongue. (2) When the vocabulary of the new lesson has thus been drawn out of the class by question and answer, and each new word has been written on the blackboard in phonetic transcript, the list of new words should be read by individual boys and by a whole class in chorus, so as to afford some additional practice in the pronunciation of these new words and to give boys an opportunity for asking the meaning of any word they may have forgotten. (3) The passage in which the new words occur, and in which the scene is described that the master has developed by the

help of the picture, is now read from the book, and orally translated into English. (4) Questions are put in French on the passage read and the boys answer these questions first with their books open and afterwards with their books closed. (5) Attention is now called to certain forms of words or constructions occurring in the passage which has just been read and translated, and these are systematically grouped together on the blackboard; the result being the illustration of a certain grammatical point, such as the tense of a verb, the use of the partitive article, the use of the subjunctive, etc. In this manner the grammar is deduced from the reader and explained by the teacher. (6) An exercise which is made up of the vocabulary of the reader and applies the grammatical points explained by the master is now taken in hand. The evening work should consist of learning the grammar or preparing the exercise previously gone through in class, or of writing the answers to questions put in French. There are many other ways in which boys may be usefully employed during their evening preparation, but I would strongly urge upon you the necessity of first going through the work orally in class. It is better to prevent mistakes from being made than to correct them. It is obvious from my previous remarks that the reading book at the Preparatory School stage should be carefully constructed so that each new passage contains a good number of examples to illustrate the grammar which is to be learnt in connection with it, and on the other hand that it should not contain other difficulties with which the pupil is not yet acquainted. It is in my opinion one of the most fatal blunders in the new method that it attempts to plunge the pupil all at once into the spoken language without attempting to graduate the difficulties or to eliminate irregularities. I do not think it is reasonable to expect beginners in French to master more than one difficulty at a time. If the first lesson, for instance, brings home to them the present tense of the verb *être* and a number of nouns and adjectives in connection therewith, it seems dangerous to introduce in addition a few forms of irregular verbs, partitive article, etc. In fact I am convinced that no sound knowledge of grammar will be established, unless it is introduced gradually and systematically in the initial stage to the exclusion of everything that is irregular.

The principles underlying the method which I have tried to sketch to you may be summed up as follows:—

(1) That the sounds of a foreign language should be acquired first, and the orthography after the sounds have been mastered and a fair pronunciation has been acquired by the help of oral teaching in connection with phonetic texts.

(2) That the reader should form the centre of modern language teaching; each passage should introduce a definite chapter of grammar, and all forms and constructions not previously mastered should be excluded.

(3) That grammar should be taught and applied systematically from the beginning as an excellent mental

training and the only basis on which correct speaking or writing in a foreign language can exist.

(4) That translation is not only for practical purposes necessary, but is also a valuable instrument for the development of exact thinking, the development of taste and literary appreciation.

(5) That French should be taught as a living thing and as the language of a living people, *i.e.*, the spoken tongue must receive great attention, and correct speaking should form an integral part of the modern language teacher's work.

(6) That the highest aim of all modern language teaching at school must be the gradual development of scholarly habits, of literary taste, of culture in the highest sense of the word.

A method which embodies these principles contains to my mind all that is good in the old and in the new, and may be described as a 'sound' method, inasmuch as it starts with the 'sound' instead of the 'letter' and aims at giving a 'sound' training. In other words it appreciates the utilitarian value of modern languages, *i.e.*, the power of understanding and speaking the vernacular, but it insists on sound mental training and literary culture as its highest objects.

I hope you will be able to give to the teaching of French in Preparatory Schools four hours a week—six lessons of forty minutes each. That, I think, is a minimum. It is important that the boys should have a lesson every day. A break of a day is a serious hindrance. Six days at half-an-hour a day is, I think, better than four times during the week for an hour each time. If you try that plan it will prove a curious fact in arithmetic, namely, that three is greater than four, because I believe that you will attain better results with the six half-hour lessons than with the four lessons of an hour each. I believe also that for boys of ten or eleven an hour is tiring. Any man who will take the trouble to spend a few hours in grasping the system which I have tried to explain will be able to pick up enough about phonetics and about pronunciation from the book to be able to teach his class intelligently and successfully, and he will soon be able to ask questions in French, other than those printed at the end of each passage.

I am afraid I have kept you a quarter of an hour longer than I ought to have done; but I hope that you will at least give the matter I have brought before you some consideration; and if you will do me the favour of trying it practically in your schools, I have no doubt that you will necessarily arrive at the same conclusions that I have arrived at after ten years' very careful and patient experiment at Clifton and examinations in other schools. We have at Clifton now a modern side for which I longed for many years. We give to French a lesson every day, and to German four lessons a week in the lower and middle Fourth, and a lesson a day from the upper Fourth upward. This plan was only introduced twelve months ago, but I

believe it will prove to be permanent, and I think it will be unnecessary for you to undertake to teach German in Preparatory Schools at all, but advisable to teach French to your classical and modern boys together. If you give the time to French which I ask, and teach them on sound lines, they should be excellently prepared for the entrance examination in French at any Public School, and the modern side boys can devote the time the classical specialists must give to Greek to their mother tongue. A boy so prepared in French and English with the usual attainments in Latin and Mathematics is certain to prosper on a modern side as it now exists at Clifton.

The CHAIRMAN: I hope Mr. Siepmann will accept our very warmest thanks for his kindness in coming here to-day and for the extremely interesting and entertaining address he has given us.

A Member asked whether Mr. Siepmann could recommend any small book on teaching French phonetically.

The CHAIRMAN: Mr. Siepmann's modesty will not allow him to answer that question, therefore I may say that he has himself written the book you want.

In reply to further questions,

MR. SIEPMANN said that phonetically 'ais,' 'ait,' and 'aient' were exactly the same.—Experience had shown that the phonetic spelling need not in the least interfere with the learning of the ordinary spelling later on.—When new boys came with a fair pronunciation, it was not necessary to put them back to the beginning of phonetics; they picked the system up without great difficulty.—He did not think that phonetics had any influence either in assisting or retarding conversation in early years; phonetics simply assisted the pupils in acquiring a correct pronunciation more rapidly than by the ordinary method.—As to the "tolérances" allowed by the French Minister of Public Instruction, with regard to certain grammatical rules, such as the agreement of the past participle, there had been no practical change whatsoever, except that certain mistakes made in examinations were now treated with excessive leniency in France.

The Conference then adjourned until Wednesday morning.

SECOND DAY.

The Conference was resumed on Wednesday morning, E. D. MANSFIELD, Esq., again presiding.

THE CHAIRMAN, in his capacity as Treasurer, presented the accounts of the Association for the past year, and pointed out that the £300 which had been placed on deposit had been withdrawn and £400 in Consols purchased at 88 $\frac{1}{8}$.

REV. C. BLACK said he had been asked to move the adoption of the accounts. This as a rule was a formal matter, but this year there was an item in regard to which the Committee had to ask the approval of the Association, and in connection with which he would move a further resolution. An honorarium of £33 10s. had been granted to the Secretary, bringing his salary up to £70. The

Conference would probably agree that the Committee were the best judges of the work done by the Secretary. No one could do the work better or bring to it more intense devotion than did Mr. Ritchie. In fact, he did a great deal more than could be expected from him, and every one who had to deal with Mr. Ritchie received a lesson in punctuality and devotion to detail. The Association was growing; the work in connection with it was increasing; in every branch there was more correspondence, more interviewing, and more personal work to be done by Mr. Ritchie; and the Committee felt that the present salary was absolutely inadequate to the services he rendered to the Association. They had, therefore, on their own responsibility, given this honorarium, and on their behalf he (Mr. Black) asked the Conference as representing the Association to endorse their action, and to say that in future the Secretary's salary should be 70 guineas a year.

MR. DE WINTON seconded.

MR. LEA, as one who had trespassed a great deal on Mr. Ritchie's kindness, desired to say that whenever he had written and asked a question he had received a reply which showed that their Secretary had made inquiries in many quarters before answering: he had really given a counsel's opinion, and not a reply upon a postcard such as might have been expected.

The resolution indemnifying the Committee for their action and fixing the future salary of the Secretary at 70 guineas per annum was then put to the Conference and carried unanimously.

On the motion of the REV. C. BLACK, seconded by MR. STRAHAN, the accounts were adopted.

ELECTION OF NEW MEMBERS OF COMMITTEE.

THE CHAIRMAN, in announcing the result of the election of new members to the Committee, expressed regret that only 89 members took the trouble to vote. That, he thought, was a lamentable fact, but he was not certain that it could be avoided, as they knew so little about one another. It had been suggested that they should label themselves by some such titles as "Progressives" and "Moderates" (laughter), but he thought that would be most misleading. He did not know whether any member could suggest a method by which a candidate's name should stand for a policy. It was very desirable, if possible, to interest more members in the election of the Committee, as it was a great pity that it should be even suggested that the affairs of the Association were carried on by a clique. He was perfectly certain that in its abusive sense that charge could not be sustained. Moreover, the rules of the Association carefully guarded against anything of the kind by providing that retiring members of the Committee could not be re-elected for a year. The new members elected were:—Mr. F. Hollins, Mr. C. Gidley Robinson, Rev. C. R. Carter, Mr. E. P. Bailly, and Mr. H. Strahan.

MR. LYNAM asked how many members of the Association had been members of the Committee at various times.

THE SECRETARY said he would look up the information and publish it in the *Review*.

A MEMBER pointed out that the fewness of members voting was really an expression of satisfaction with the Committee as constituted.

A MEMBER thought it would be a good thing if candidates would allow themselves to be designated by some term. Members were not acquainted with one another's schools and aims, and it was quite possible under the present system for the Committee not to be representative of the Association as a whole.

REV. H. C. V. SNOWDEN suggested that the interval during which a member should not be eligible for re-election should be extended to two years.

MR. RHODES remarked that if the Committee was to be a representative body it would be better that its members should represent districts; there should be a sort of territorial qualification.

THE SECRETARY pointed out that two years ago the adoption of the territorial system was suggested. Attempts had been made to carry out the idea, but in the northern parts of the country it had proved impossible. Last year eight or nine members were nominated in the North of England, but they all declined to serve, on the ground that they could not attend the meetings.

REV. C. BLACK said it was possible to consult one's constituents under the present system. In his district they had a meeting of the masters and discussed the matters that were coming up at the Conference, so that Mr. Douglas and he always knew the opinions of their *confrères* in the district.

REV. H. BULL said it would certainly test the feeling of the Association with regard to its affairs being governed by a clique if the whole Committee retired every year.

MR. VOULES, speaking as a critic of the Committee, thought it would be a great pity if that body were constantly changed, as they would probably get men who would spend half their year of office in learning the work. He had never felt that the Association was run by a clique—at all events, in the abusive sense of the term.

MR. LYNAM really thought some method of election addresses would be advisable. If candidates published in the issue of the *Review* preceding the election a short summary of their views on certain subjects it would be a great help to the electors. He had been a member of every Committee since the commencement of the Association, so that if there was any clique about it, it was he.

The subject then dropped.

GUARANTEE FUND.

MR. H. STRAHAN moved the following resolution:—

"That for the future the funds of the Association as a whole, under the control of the Committee, shall constitute a Guarantee Fund for the Members' legal expenses in actions undertaken professionally."

He said that at many Conferences dissatisfaction had been felt and freely expressed with the attitude of the Association towards the Guarantee Fund. Some members were guaran-

teers, others were not, while probably new members had never had the fund brought to their notice at all. As matters now stood, a Committee, none of whose members were guarantors, might be elected, and thus they would have to deal with other people's money. Out of 300 members of the Association only 97 were guarantors, and the amount guaranteed was £320. The resolution simply meant that for the future all would stand shoulder to shoulder (hear, hear). The funds of the Association, which had been accumulating for twelve years, were not increasing at a sufficiently rapid rate to afford any hope of providing a sort of headquarters for the Association. It was a satisfaction to possess this £400 in Consols, but at present it was not of much use to anybody, and, although that was not an argument in favour of spending it straight away, he desired to find some way by which it might be made use of. His suggestion was that it should be available for fighting cases of real importance to the profession, and the Committee would decide whether a case was of sufficient importance to warrant a grant from the funds. Such cases would seldom arise, as members of the Association were not litigious, but it was highly desirable that when a master had fair ground for an action the matter should be carried to a satisfactory termination. It would soon be recognized that with the Association at his back a master was certain to win his case, and thus a list of precedents would be established which no respectable lawyer would advise a client to contest.

REV. R. A. BULL heartily seconded the resolution. The careful consideration that would have to be given to a case before any assistance was granted would be a guarantee that the case was a sound one, and the very fact that a master had the Association at his back would be a great deterrent to actions being taken into Court.

THE CHAIRMAN remarked that in January, 1903, the Guarantee Fund amounted to £238, and it was now £320. There were 97 guarantors.

THE SECRETARY said there had been a considerable increase in the fund this year in response to a batch of circulars which he sent out early in the year. He presumed that the present resolution, if carried, would involve the extinction of the existing Guarantee Fund.

MR. UNDERHILL suggested that the Association should keep a list of cases which had been settled, and, further, that they should have a standing counsel or solicitor whom members could consult.

MR. RHODES thought the resolution savoured much too highly of trades unionism, and he hoped the Conference would carefully avoid any steps that would bring them to that level. Moreover the question of honesty was almost involved: they could not very well take other people's money and apply it to certain particular cases. The fact that only 97 out of 300 members had come forward as guarantors was practically a verdict against the resolution. He believed the proposal, if carried, would encourage a contentious spirit.

MR. ROPER thought the resolution was rather too sweeping, as it would lock up the money for one particular

purpose. He would rather propose that the money should be constituted a sort of benefit fund for the assistance of cases of distress. He agreed with the suggestion as to the appointment of a standing solicitor; if they had a legal case they wanted legal advice, but they did not want their expenses paid. He moved as an amendment that a benefit fund should be formed to assist at the discretion of the Committee members of the profession in distress.

MR. LYNAM seconded the amendment. It was far better that the funds of the Association should not be hypothecated as proposed by Mr. Strahan.

MR. STRAHAN disclaimed any such intention, and complained that his resolution was being totally misread.

MR. ROBINSON asked whether any call had been made on the Guarantee Fund, and, if so, to what extent?

THE SECRETARY replied that a year ago a case was brought before the Committee, and a member was authorized to take the case into court, a certain amount of costs being guaranteed out of the Fund. The result was that the amount in dispute was immediately paid; the costs to the master were £5, for which, however, he had not applied.

REV. H. BULL said that when he originally proposed the establishment of the Guarantee Fund, the idea in his mind was that it would tend to the solidarity of the Association if, when a case occurred, it was fought in the interests of the profession, and they stood together by forming a united guarantee fund. The cases he had particularly in view were not those in which a quarter's fees or anything of that sort was involved, but those in which masters in the exercise of their duty were obliged to get rid of assistant-masters who they knew were not fit to be in their schools. In such cases the master ran the risk of an action for libel, and it might be very difficult for a master, unless he was in a very sound position, to refuse to compromise the matter, when in the interests of the profession it ought to be fought out. The reason more members had not become guarantors was, he believed, that no actual cases requiring such assistance had come up. He hoped the Conference would decide to stick to the Guarantee Fund and leave the other funds to be dealt with as the Association and the Committee thought fit.

In reply to questions,

THE CHAIRMAN ruled that the effect of the resolution, if carried, would be to abolish the existing Guarantee Fund and to tie up the funds of the Association to this one purpose.

REV. L. EVANS pointed out that the sum was so absurdly small that it would not be of much use as a benefit fund.

REV. H. C. V. SNOWDEN said the whole of this £400—or at any rate a very large part of it—would be swallowed up by a single case. The profits of the Association were about £100 a year, so that it would take another four years to amass a capital of £400. In any concern, whether public or private, it was always advisable to have a balance, to meet possible emergencies; he therefore hoped they would leave things as they were.

MR. BLUNT said he had been threatened with an action in which damages were laid at £5,000. He was legally advised that he had a good case, and that he should give facilities for the case to be taken into court. He followed that advice, but the other side were recommended by their counsel to drop the case, and they did so. His total expenses were between £5 and £10. He felt the temptation to compromise, and would have been very glad to feel that he had such an Association as theirs at his back. He was of opinion that there was good ground for supporting the motion, and especially the suggestion as to a standing solicitor.

MR. THRING said the difficulty seemed to be that they had a certain sum of money which no one was empowered to use. Would not the more logical and practical plan be to empower the Committee to use the money when in their opinion it was requisite, subject to the approval or censure of the Association at the Annual Conference?

THE CHAIRMAN announced that Mr. Strahan and his seconder had agreed to amend the resolution so that it would read “. . . shall, among other purposes, be available as a Guarantee Fund. . . .” By being so amended the resolution would not hypothecate for that particular purpose.

After further conversation,

MR. VOULES moved, and MR. MASON seconded, the “previous question.” This was carried by a large majority.

After some discussion as to the form the proposal should take,

MR. ROPER moved, and MR. ROWE seconded—“That it be an instruction to the Committee, ‘that the funds of the Association may until further notice be available to assist men in the profession at the discretion of the Committee in cases of distress.’”

MR. THRING thought it would be very much better to give the Committee a general instruction to use the money at their discretion, and moved as an amendment—“That until further notice the Committee be empowered to use the funds of the Association at their discretion.”

REV. L. EVANS seconded.

The amendment was put and carried, and on being put as a substantive motion was agreed to *nem. con.*

TEACHING OF GEOMETRY.

MR. E. KITCHENER, in opening a discussion on the teaching of geometry, disclaimed any intention of reading a paper on the subject. As a matter of fact, all members of the Conference were interested in the new departure which had taken place in geometrical teaching, and he had felt that it would be well to raise a discussion on the question. At first he thought a definite motion might be moved, but after spending ten days in trying to frame a motion suitable for the purpose he came to the conclusion that it rather tied one up to have to speak to such a resolution, and that if, by having a good discussion, members were led to think about this new teaching, they might be able to produce something useful next year. By this new departure an attempt was being made to make education attractive.

That was a most excellent thing, but he was rather afraid that they might be trying to make education a little too attractive. They all had had to go through the mill. He did not believe there was a successful schoolmaster who had not been at a school where he had had to work from nine to seven, and then correct papers after dinner. They had all had to go through the mill, and he thought the boys ought to go through the mill also. Were they going to go too far in the direction of playing with compasses and protractors? Were they going to lose what he believed was so valuable, *viz.*, the learning of, say, a proposition like the fourth?

Masters who had had many years' experience of teaching realized the value of such propositions and were not likely to err in that direction, but there was a great danger for the young teachers, *viz.*, that they would find it so pleasant and easy to make the boys bisect angles and given straight lines that they would neglect the most important part of geometrical teaching—a true proposition with its accompanying reasoning. They ought to look very carefully at the entrance examinations for the public schools to see that they were not entirely giving up the setting of propositions. The questions in Geometry set for the Army this year were absolutely futile. There was not a formal proposition of any sort.

There was another point: masters had been peppered with books on the new geometry; the writers had simply been rushing into print in order to try to get their books on the market first; the new departure was reducing the whole atmosphere of geometrical teaching to an extraordinarily foggy and nebulous condition, while the books were increasing that "nebulosity" (if he might coin the word). He felt certain that the Mathematical Association combined with Cambridge, or *vice versa*, might have appointed two men to write a book more or less under the guidance of that Association. (Hear, hear.) In Arithmetic, unless well managed from above, the teaching had been lacking in uniformity, but there had been one branch of mathematics which had been definite, and in which they had had a definite text-book. By all means let them omit those clumsy problems which were much better done with instruments, but let them not lose Euclid as a definite subject. The two points he wished to urge were, first, that they should not lose the true reasoning value of the old Euclid by over-doing the practical work, however attractive it might be; and, secondly, that they should try to keep the subject a definite one, having, if possible, a definite text-book to guide them.

REV. H. C. V. SNOWDEN asked in what order the propositions should be taken.

MR. KITCHENER said he specially wished it to be understood that he was not setting himself up as a teacher of teachers of geometry. But as a matter of fact the order was more or less decided for them, the idea being that they should begin with lines (Propositions 13, 14, 15, and parallels), then angles and triangles. Proposition 27 in most of the books was absolutely impossible for beginners,

in fact Godfrey and Siddons had a foot-note suggesting that it had better not be learnt on first reading, while Hall and Stevens introduced the old 16th proposition in order to prove the 27th on the *reductio ad absurdum* principle.

MR. LYNAM did not believe in the formal proposition at all. In his opinion, there ought not to be any formal propositions set in any paper on geometry. The reply of a little boy on being asked how he liked the modern geometry was, "Oh, it's awfully easy, but at the end of the term one forgets all about it." That was exactly what was wanted. There ought to be no remembering whatever in geometry or mathematics, beyond the multiplication table, and that ought to be an instinct. (Laughter.) Any mathematician would agree that the object of geometrical thought was not to have stored up formal propositions, but to have the faculty of solving geometrical problems in a way which mere knowledge of formal propositions would never enable one to do. It was well known that for a long time at Oxford in Responsions one could take a paper in formal propositions of Euclid: that was the *reductio ad absurdum* of the whole thing; one had simply to get off by heart a certain number of propositions, and the more nearly he wrote them out in the words of Todhunter the better. That, however, had now been abandoned, and riders were set. In conic sections there was no formal order of propositions at all, and in the ordinary Euclid in many cases there were several ways of proving one proposition. There were at least three equally excellent ways of proving proposition 47, and if it could be proved by taking two squares and cutting them up why should one go through all the formal proof of the Pythagorean proposition? As to proposition 27, if any one tried cutting the pieces out and placing them around the transversal the whole thing was as easy as possible. There should really be no propositions to be learnt and written out in a particular way: it was like learning a lot of exceptions in grammar. That was distinctly not the value of geometry. Where was the good of such a mechanical and merely mnemonic method of geometry? Mathematics suffered enormously in general estimation, and Euclid was scorned because it became a mere matter of learning and writing out in a mechanical way certain propositions. Geometry was on an entirely different footing, and Euclid had done a great deal of harm to the cause of real and sensible geometry.

A member thought Mr. Lynam had been rather hard on poor Euclid. Would he suggest that in music it would be better not to learn the scales in future, but to start composing straight away; or in art, that a student should not begin by copying the old masters, but should start on some subject of his own? All these new systems seemed to forget that there was no royal road to knowledge.

MR. VOULES asked at what age his fellow members began to teach boys geometry, and whether they found it advisable to give very young boys much practical work; whether, in fact, the boys did not waste time with compasses and protractors?

MR. MASON said he had always been struck by the fact

that the books were filled with all sorts of little drawing amusements for the boys in which he could not see the slightest use. "In a right-angled triangle, given sides 11" and 12", find the length of the hypotenuse,"—what good did a boy get from that? He did not think it improved the accuracy of a pupil in drawing. The main object of geometrical teaching was to improve a boy's reasoning.

REV. C. BLACK agreed largely with Mr. Mason. There was a good deal in the new method, but its exponents seemed to have got the bit between their teeth, and to be determined to press it with the same extravagance as the professors of the new method of teaching modern languages.

MR. TILLARD thought a distinction was to be drawn between the new method of mensuration and the teaching of riders. He entirely agreed that it was no good wasting time over the mensuration work.

MR. KITCHENER, replying on the discussion, said he was not in the least convinced by Mr. Lynam. Because there were, unfortunately, some geometrical idiots who learnt propositions by heart, was a very important piece of training to be cast aside? As to the Public Schools, he quite recognized that they could not be coerced, but from what he had heard he knew the Association was a power, and if a strong and united motion could be sent from the Association to the Public Schools—especially now that they were likely to have a common Entrance Examination—he believed it would be carefully considered, and considered on its merits. He only hoped that by the next Conference the subject would have developed somewhat, and that they would then be able to bring forward some definite motion of a useful nature.

INHABITED HOUSE DUTY.

REV. C. BLACK, in explaining a circular about to be issued in reference to the test case concerning the above, said it was the history of a fight in which they had apparently been worsted, but he did not think the fight was over. If the Association only acted together as a whole they might be able to bring pressure to bear which would result in some good. The only thing they could do was to approach the Chancellor of the Exchequer and see whether the Schedule of the Finance Act could be altered in their favour.

QUESTIONS.

MR. LEA asked whether the question of advertising had been considered by the Committee. He thought advertising was rather below the level of the Association, and it would be a help to many if an expression of opinion could go forth from the Conference on the subject.

THE CHAIRMAN thought the question of advertising was one which in the near future would have to be fully discussed, and an attempt made to frame a set of professional rules such as those governing the legal and medical professions. It was absolutely necessary for the teaching profession to be raised to a proper place in the country, and he fully agreed with Mr. Lea's remarks on the point. He also had great sympathy with those who felt they could

not do without advertising—that if others did it they were bound to; but it was just one of those points on which the Association might agree as a body to lift themselves above it altogether. That, however, could not be done without full consideration; but if they agreed to a self-denying ordinance he believed it would be for the good of the Association and of the profession.

Votes of thanks were accorded the Chairman and the Secretary, and the Conference concluded.

PRESENT AT THE CONFERENCE (101).

E. D. Mansfield (*Chairman*)

A. H. Atkinson	W. R. Lee
*H. C. Barber	*W. S. Hatch
W. A. R. Biddle	Rev. F. de W. Lushington
Rev. C. Black	*C. C. Lynam
*E. Blair	*C. G. Mallam
*W. H. Blake	*C. Mallam
G. Blunt	*Rev. J. H. Mallinson
*Rev. C. W. L. Bode	*T. H. Mason
*O. H. Bradnack	*J. C. Morgan-Brown
H. C. Broadrick	S. Savery
*Rev. H. R. Browne	T. S. Morton
*Rev. H. Bull	*A. E. Murray
Rev. R. A. Bull	J. S. Norman
G. F. Burgess	*C. D. Olive
*Rev. F. R. Burrows	*Rev. E. Owen
*W. B. C. Cawood	*E. H. Parry
P. Christopherson	A. G. Paterson
A. E. Clark	*R. W. Patton
*Rev. W. M. Clark	E. C. Paul
*Rev. A. H. G. Creed	B. C. Pearce
*M. J. Daugleish	G. H. Philbrick
F. Knowles	T. M. Pike
*P. S. Dealtry	*M. C. Pitkin
*C. J. H. Barr	G. Innes Pocock
A. C. Douglas	Rev. H. A. Rhodes
*R. F. Duckworth	*W. M. Rhodes
*E. H. V. Elliott	*A. J. Richardson
G. L. Evans	*W. J. P. Ridgway
*Rev. L. Evans	*F. Ritchie
*Rev. R. B. C. Everard	*G. Gidley Robinson
G. W. Gruggen	*M. Roderick
E. D. Hake	*A. F. Roper
Rev. F. T. Hall	F. E. Rowe
W. M. Harvey	W. G. Reeve
*L. Helbert	Rev. G. C. Rowe
G. B. Innes Hopkins	A. F. Saunders
*Rev. C. P. Hutchison	D. M. Smith
*W. G. Jackson	B. H. Snell
C. R. Jelf	*Rev. H. C. V. Snowden
*E. H. Lloyd Jones	T. Spencer
*H. C. King	H. T. S. Storrs
*E. Kitchener	*H. Strahan
R. C. V. Lang	H. Taylor
*R. S. Lea	*H. D. Thomas

*H. C. Tillard	*L. M. Wallick
*L. C. W. Thring	Rev. C. T. Wickham
*L. T. Thring	*A. J. de Winton
H. G. Underhill	R. F. C. de Winton
*P. A. Underhill	T. Wise
M. F. Voules	Rev. F. H. Woodhouse
*O. H. Wagner	

PRESENT AT THE DINNER.
(Sixty-one members besides guests.)

Those marked (*) in the above list, and
H. R. Brown E. H. Montauban
E. W. M. Meeres Edwin Owen
J. V. Milne

PROCEEDINGS OF COMMITTEE.

A MEETING of the Committee was held on Tuesday, Feb. 9th, 1904. Fifteen members were present.

Election of Chairman and Officers.

Chairman,	Rev. C. F. Wickham.
Vice-Chairman,	E. D. Mansfield.
Hon. Treasurer,	E. D. Mansfield.
Secretary,	F. Ritchie.
Editor P.S.R.,	F. Ritchie.
Censor P.S.R.,	Rev. R. A. Bull.

Sub-Committees appointed.

Entrance Scholarship.—Dr. Williams, Rev. V. F. Royle, T. H. Mason.

I.H.D.—H. Strahan, Rev. E. L. Browne, Rev. C. Black.

Bible Teaching.—Rev. H. Bull, Rev. C. R. Carter, E. P. Bailey. (To communicate with publishers with the view of obtaining pictorial aids to Bible Teaching.)

Election of New Members.

R. Arnold Edgell, Sywell House, Llandudno.
H. Chernocke Pearse, St. Ninian's, Moffat, N.B.
E. H. D. MacCarthy, 1, Warwick Road, W.
Bertram Auden, Glyngarth, Cheltenham.
Bernard V. C. Ransome, } The Bay School,
Wilfrid H. Jones, } Birchington-on-Sea.
E. Cotgreave Brown, Amesbury, Bickley Hall, Kent.

Common Entrance Examination.

Mr. E. D. Mansfield and the Rev. H. Bull were appointed as representatives of the Association on the Board of Managers, which has since been completed by the appointment of three representatives of the Headmasters' Conference.

Guarantee Fund.

Mr. Thring pointed out that in view of the resolution carried at the last Annual Conference, whereby the Committee was empowered to employ the funds of the Association at their discretion, the present position of the Guarantee Fund was somewhat illogical, there being two funds for the same purpose, one available for any member and the other only for subscribers to the Fund.

In the course of the discussion that followed it appeared that there was some divergence of opinion as to the intention of the resolution passed at the Conference. It was eventually agreed that no action should be taken at present.

Standing Orders.

Mr. Strahan urged the desirability of framing some standing orders for the regulation of debate at the Annual Conference. Mr. Strahan was asked to collect examples of such regulations and to bring the matter forward at a later meeting.

THE COMMITTEE, 1893—1903.

At the last Annual Conference a request was made that the Secretary would ascertain and publish in the *P.S.R.* the number of members who had served on the Committee since the foundation of the Association. This has been done, though with some difficulty; for the earliest records of the Association, like other ancient MSS., are occasionally somewhat obscure. The Secretary cannot therefore guarantee the complete accuracy of the subjoined list.

Forty-three members appear to have served on the Committee for various periods during the eleven years, 1893—1903. In several cases the years of service indicated include *ex officio* membership.

Excluding *ex officio* membership, the "highest possible" number that could have served in eleven years would be 65.

It may be observed that in the early years of the Association, though one-third of the Committee retired annually, retirement was (in one case at all events) determined by lot, and the retiring members were apparently eligible for re-election.

CADETSHIPS AT THE ROYAL NAVAL COLLEGE, OSBORNE.

At the Examination for Cadetships at the Royal Navy College, Osborne, which will take place in July next, the following changes will take effect:—

The syllabus of Examination will be simplified. The option previously given will disappear, but Latin will be retained as one of the subjects of examination. History and geography will be combined in one paper; arithmetic and algebra will also be combined in one paper, about two-thirds of which will be devoted to arithmetic.

These changes are made with the object of bringing the Examinations more completely into line with the work of ordinary Preparatory Schools.

The revised syllabus will be as follows:—

1. English.
2. History and geography.
3. Arithmetic and algebra.
4. Geometry.
5. French or German, with an oral examination.
6. Latin.

Candidates will take all six papers, but a fixed standard of qualification in each subject will not be required provided that the general standard of the candidate in other subjects is satisfactory.

The lower limit of age is now 12 years 4 months, the upper limit being still 13. Each boy has therefore two occasions on either of which he may be presented for interview and examination; but no candidate who, after nomination, fails at the examination will be nominated again.

A Blue-book has just been issued under the title:—

SELECTION OF CANDIDATES FOR NOMINATION
AS NAVAL CADETS.

REPORTS OF MEMBERS OF THE INTERVIEW COMMITTEE.

From the "Prefatory Memorandum" we extract the following:—

"It appears that the nature and intention of this examination is occasionally misunderstood, and that some parents make the mistake of supposing that the services of a 'crammer' are necessary or desirable. It cannot be too plainly intimated to the parents of boys who are presented under the new scheme that the Admiralty do not want candidates who have been specially prepared to pass an examination. They want boys who have had the advantage of natural mental and physical development under the usual conditions of a good Preparatory School. To take away the boy from such a school and subject him to special tuition is a course to be emphatically deprecated. Of the whole number of candidates for nomination it is impossible to accept nearly all. Those who are not taken should be in a position to continue their education without interruption, by passing into a Public School. Those who are taken will be better fitted for beginning their training at Osborne if they come to it direct from a Preparatory School of the ordinary type. Up to the time of entry at Osborne it is on every ground desirable that there should be no distinction between the school work of the Navy candidate and that of the boy who means to go on to a Public School."

[The following letter from the First Lord of the Admiralty has been received by Mr. Mansfield and is reproduced here with Lord Selborne's permission.—ED.]

ADMIRALTY, WHITEHALL.

Jan. 25, 1904.

DEAR SIR,

In order to be in a better position to select my nominees for entry into the Royal Naval College at Osborne under the new scheme of Naval Cadetships, I have before each nomination appointed a Committee to interview the various candidates and report to me on their qualifications. These Committees have thought it advisable to address confidentially to the Headmasters of the Schools where the boys are being educated a series of questions about the candidates. They have reported to me that in the majority of cases the replies to these questions have been given with evident care and scrupulous fairness, and have been of the greatest assistance to the members of the Committees in forming their judgment about the boys.

It is in accordance with the request of the Committees, with which I most willingly comply, that I now beg you, as Chairman of the Preparatory Schools Association, to convey

to the members concerned the warm appreciation of the help which they have been good enough to give which is felt by both the Committees and myself.

Believe me,

Yours very truly,

SELBORNE.

*The Chairman of the Association of
Headmasters of Preparatory Schools.*

RUGBY MATHEMATICAL SCHOLARSHIPS.

A COPY of the circular on this subject and an analysis of the replies received from members was, by direction of the Committee, sent to Dr. James on Nov. 18th, 1903. Dr. James replied to the Secretary as follows:—

SCHOOL HOUSE, RUGBY.

Dec. 1st, 1903.

I am sorry that the answer to your memorandum has been so long delayed. I placed it at once in the hands of my mathematical colleagues and only got their remarks to-day. With these remarks I agree.

1. These Scholarships cannot be regarded as the exclusive property of Preparatory Schools. They are almost the only chance that boys at Grammar Schools (and private schools of a similar type) have of getting into Public Schools, and I should be *most loth* to deprive them of it.

2. If we did what you ask, the examination as a test of mathematical ability would be absolutely valueless. In classics you may infer with *tolerable* certainty that a boy who does well on easy papers will probably do well in more advanced work. But in mathematics there is no such presumption at all; and unless we examine in these harder subjects we must give up Mathematical Scholarships altogether. I should be very sorry to do so, for it is somewhat heart-breaking to the teachers of an important department in the School to have no material to work on; and still harder upon boys who are good in this subject to have no chance, such as classical boys have.

H. A. JAMES.

Dr. James's letter enclosed the following:—

RUGBY,

Dec. 1st, 1903.

DEAR DR. JAMES,

My mathematical colleagues and I have carefully considered the letter recently circulated among the members of the Preparatory Schools Headmasters' Association in which the opinions of the Mathematical Masters in Preparatory Schools are recorded against, or for, the algebra syllabus we issued last summer.

While fully recognizing that these opinions should have their due weight, we have to remember that the majority of our mathematical candidates come from schools outside the Association above mentioned, and also from private tuition.

Looking back over the past few years our mathematical scholars have, for the most part, so come.

And most of them have shown a knowledge of a con-

siderable part, if not all, of the subjects in the syllabus; not, perhaps, a very extended knowledge, which of course we do not expect, but enough to show that they have been well taught the elementary and easier portions of them.

If the scope is increased so also is the boy's interest, and were the views of the 113 masters who voted for the exclusion of the whole list from the Entrance Scholarship papers adopted, nothing would be left but the very elementary part (up to quadratics and indices) and the papers would have to contain many hard equations and fractions involving great practice in algebraical manipulation, which is just what makes algebra heavy and dull.

In our algebra papers next year I should propose to restrict any questions in the higher rules mentioned in the syllabus to quite easy ones, and to omit convergence and divergence, indeterminate coefficients, and exponential and logarithmic series, giving a sufficiency of questions in the more elementary part to suit a well taught boy of 14.

I am, Yours truly,

A. E. DONKIN.

THE RIFLE IN THE PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

AND quite out of place it will doubtless seem to many a schoolmaster. I must confess that it was with considerable hesitation that I introduced it. It came about in this way. On a "half-term" holiday two parents, army men, who had seen much active service, opened such a strong frontal attack, with at the same time such a perplexing flanking of either wing, that in less than an hour all opposition was crushed and the position carried, nothing remaining but the smoke of cigars to mark the scene of action. Though reluctant to take up this work, I felt that it was the part of a good citizen to do what he could towards hastening the time when the whole young manhood of this country could shoot.

The next consideration was in what light would the other parents view the proposal that their sons should use a miniature, but none the less deadly, rifle. We therefore issued the following circular:—

It is becoming very widely recognized that it is the duty of all young men to render themselves efficient for the defence of their country. In the Public Schools boys are learning, in addition to Military Exercises, to use the Rifle, and the movement is now extending to the Preparatory Schools. By means of miniature ammunition and ranges, it is possible to train boys of eleven or twelve and upwards to become marksmen. . . . Boys will join only on the expressed wish of their parents. The time is so arranged that neither work nor games will be interfered with. It need not be added that boys will never use the rifle except under supervision.

There is an educational value in this instruction which is of some importance. To a boy the whole subject is of intense interest. This awakened interest is the very thing the Schoolmaster desires. It makes him alert and observant. Another result of some value may be added—a trained boy will know how to handle firearms safely.

I considered eleven years of age quite young enough. Going over our numbers, I found that we had thirty boys between eleven and fourteen. Of these I anticipated some six or eight at the outside would join. Beyond sending the circular, I did nothing to induce any one to give in his son's name, and admitted no boy until I had a direct

request from home. And now comes the instructive sequel. No less than twenty-four boys joined at once. We received many letters of thanks, and not a single one that hinted doubt or dislike. One said it would be of the greatest use to his son in joining the Cadet Corps of his Public School. Another regretted we had not done this while his elder boy was with us. One presented a rifle, and two offered cups for competition. The parents looked upon it as a privilege, and warmly thanked us for giving their sons this opportunity of becoming familiar with the rifle at an early age.

Having a safe place for shooting—a good brick wall is the best stopping butt—care must be taken that no boy shall carelessly run into the firing place. We have a locked enclosure. We have also built a brick shelter for the marker. A box made of stout planking is fastened on the wall at a convenient height. On this the paper targets—costing five shillings a thousand—are fixed by a drawing pin. In course of time the front of the box will be all shot away, and must be renewed. Our range is sixteen yards. The paper target is a miniature of the real thing. There are many varieties. The one we use has a "Bull" of one inch diameter—the size of a half-penny—the "Inner" is two inches, and the "Magpie" is four inches. The target itself is six inches square, and counts as an "Outer." The scoring is Bull, 5; Inner, 4; Magpie, 3; and an Outer, 2. A boy of twelve years made in the final competition last term 2 Bulls, and 3 Inners, in his five shots, or 22 out of a possible 25. I have only attained to 21!

The shooting is not through a tube, but in the open air; and the rifle is not a Morris tube fitted into a gun, but a real rifle of small bore, taking .230 cartridges. It carries a thousand yards, and will go through sheet iron or thick planking. It is in fact a veritable lethal weapon and no plaything. We have two of these miniature Martini rifles, known as the "British Cadet." This rifle can be bought at the Army and Navy Stores for three guineas, and is beautifully made. Its weight is 5½ lbs. The cartridges cost half-a-crown a hundred, but less if a quantity is taken. I may add that no gun licence is required.

I need hardly say that there must be absolute discipline. The pointing at a person with an empty rifle is a very grave offence. A master is always present with the Sergeant-Instructor. There should be thorough preliminary drill to teach the parts and mechanism of the rifle, the way to hold it, and the various positions for firing—kneeling, lying, and standing.

That skill in a miniature range of 15 or 16 yards is a real foundation for good shooting with the army rifle may be seen by the consideration that a Bull of one inch at 16 yards—our range—is equal to a Bull of 25 inches at 400 yards. (The usual Bull is 24 inches.) To hit the one inch Bull at a range of 25 yards—which is recommended wherever possible—would require the same marksmanship as to hit the two-foot Bull at 24 times 25 yards, that is 600 yards. The little rifle is properly sighted, and the marks-

man learns how to get his sight on the Bull, to press (the Sergeant begs you will not say "pull") the trigger, and fire without a jerk.

If I have worried any one with detail, it must be remembered that I am writing for those who are as ignorant—as I was three months ago! Every help will be given to those interested if they will write to Mr. Marks, the courteous Secretary of the Miniature Rifle Club, 17, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W. Ask for the little red book, "Miniature Rifle Clubs: how to form and conduct them."

J. VINE MILNE.

THE TROUBLES OF A SCHOOLMASTER.

By H. FRAMPTON STALLARD.

[This paper was read before a meeting of parents.]

Concluded from the last number of the P.S.R.

THE difficulties that have been mentioned so far have been what we may call partnership troubles—the partnership of home and school. There are however difficulties of a different nature. Foremost among these is the difficulty that a headmaster experiences in finding suitable colleagues. It is undoubtedly the easiest thing in the world to find men who, in return for salaries offered them, will make a pretence of performing the duties required. But it is an extremely difficult thing to find suitable men. Not only are certain learned attainments requisite, but a headmaster is bound to seek in his assistants those qualities of heart and temper which parents look for in him. It is not merely sufficient for him to have colleagues who possess the learning requisite to teach the subjects of the curriculum, he must find men who are zealous to perform the unpaid service that shows neither in the headmaster's bills nor on the assistant's time table. It is easy enough to find men who possess the learning that is required for a good class; but above all the headmaster has to find some one possessing sympathy, energy, zeal, tact, and above all things sympathy with young children. Of these qualities only the first can be judged of on paper; for the rest he has to trust partly to luck, and partly to what is at the best a very short interview. Many headmasters choose their assistants without seeing them. It is difficult to see how a satisfactory opinion can be formed without an interview, especially when one considers how extremely hard it is even in an interview of an hour's duration to correctly gauge all these points. There are in the ranks of assistant masters many most zealous and devoted men, but it is undoubtedly a fact that there are also a considerable number of men who are "wasters." Year by year the universities turn out a certain proportion of men who having done nothing particular at their Public Schools have at 19 gone to the university with no clear idea, except that they would like a continuance of the pleasant time they had enjoyed at school. These men at the university do little or no work, and, having graduated "with credit,"

are at 22 for the first time compelled seriously to look their life problem in the face, and to consider how they are to obtain a living. As they were at 19, so they are at 22, and they drift into the scholastic profession simply as the easiest solution of the present difficulty, without considering at all the obligations it imposes on them, or the qualities that it demands. This difficulty may possibly be better gauged from a consideration of the following document, an application for a vacant mastership on the writer's staff.

"Dear Sir,—I am writing in reference to your advertisement in the *University Correspondent*. I am a graduate of the University of Oxford, having taken my B.A. a week or two since. Within my sphere I should include the teaching of all the general form subjects, including logic (deductive and inductive), economics, as well as mathematics (elementary), and all subjects up to and including the Oxford pass. It is with confidence that I venture to profess to be able to teach French. As a boy at school I received several prizes for this language, and in addition to this I passed the Cambridge Locals in this subject. Having travelled abroad (where for some weeks I had lessons in French) I have had further opportunities of improving the same.

"I am fond of sports, being experienced in football association, fives, swimming, sculling, punting, canoeing, boat sailing, rowing, photography, etc. I am fond of music, and sing and play the violin also. Enclosed you will find three copies of testimonials which please return.

"I am very fond of boys, and am said to be of gentlemanly manners and refined habits, etc., etc. Yours faithfully, ———"

It is dreadful to think what harm might be done in a school by a person sufficiently fatuous to urge his fondness for punting, canoeing, boat sailing, etc.—the pet forms of slacking at Oxford, as constituting serious qualifications for a mastership. Besides this, the humour of the gentleman who having been interviewed and found unsatisfactory, subsequently sent in a bill not merely for his railway fare from the south coast, but also for a first class ticket from Broad Street, a cab from Hampstead Heath station to this door, and a 3s. 6d. luncheon in town, comes as a bright refreshment.

There is a good old maxim that has consoled many a man in his trouble:—

For every evil under the sun,
There is a remedy or there is none.
If there is, try and find it,
If there is not, never mind it.

In spite of all our troubles, of which the writer has endeavoured to make the most, we teachers sometimes think that our profession would be as near perfect bliss as it is possible for mortals to attain to, if only illness, and and above all infectious illness, could be eliminated from the equation. By far the largest part, indeed one might almost say, all our gravest difficulties and anxieties, arise from that cause. This anxiety is of a two-fold kind: the first is the obvious fear that the illness may be a serious one and health or even life be endangered; this is so obvious, and so real, that it needs not to be emphasized. The second is a personal one, in that all illness involves a headmaster in financial loss, and many kinds of illness may involve him in financial ruin. One has in mind cases of not one or two schools that have been, temporarily at all events, ruined by outbreaks of serious illness. These two reasons afford abundant ground for the trouble that is taken in the effort to secure the health of the boys, but in this connection we are very largely in the hands of our

parents. Of course neither they nor any one can altogether prevent either the existence or the spread of illness, but with care a very great deal can be done. In the first place care can be exercised to know whether or not a boy has been exposed to infection; and at school, if we are at all suspicious of a boy, we isolate him until all possible fear has passed. It happened some time ago that at an "out" football match, owing to a misunderstanding, some eight boys of the team were exposed to an infection of mumps. Until, therefore, the full time of incubation was passed, we arranged to keep these boys entirely separate from the rest of the school. They had a separate classroom, separate meals, and separate bedrooms. Whenever a case of infectious illness occurs and there appears any reasonable probability of its spreading, we always notify the fact to the parents of day boys and weekly boarders, in order that they may take what precautions they please for the sake of their own homes, and in order that they may watch the boys while they are at home, and thus note the first symptoms should they develop. This noting of the first symptoms is a most important point, for experience shows again and again that illness which has been taken in time is often trivial, but a few days' neglect may result in most serious consequences.

As a general rule my experience is that the parents are as careful as we are, but cases have occurred where the contrary has been the fact. In one case, for example, a child had been noted as having a cough for some time. One morning he had a violent fit of coughing after his breakfast and had been sick. The boy was sent to school without a word of warning, and straightway we had whooping-cough. But of all sources of infection the worst are Christmas parties and hippodromes. I suppose both are necessary evils, but it certainly would be an enormous blessing if not only parties and theatres were tabooed during term time, but also if it could be arranged that as far as possible attendance at these functions should be confined to the earlier part of the holidays. This would give time for the diseases to develop before the commencement of the ensuing term. In this connection I would emphasize what I have so frequently said, that parties in term time ought not to be allowed to exist. Work is work, and during term we want work. If we allow boys to go off to parties instead of doing their work, they see that their elders and betters are willing to put play before work, and naturally they draw their own conclusion—this, altogether apart from the question of illness, is a very serious consideration.

It will be easily understood that one experiences a feeling of reluctance in mentioning at all the question of money, but a paper dealing with the difficulties of a schoolmaster would be altogether incomplete that omitted this most important item. In an ideal world the schoolmaster would be provided in return for his service with an income sufficient to maintain him in a position of reasonable equality with the parents of his boys. And as the Indian Civil Servant is pensioned at the conclusion of his service, so

too would the schoolmaster be provided with a sufficient income for his old age and an assurance of the same for his wife and unmarried daughters. For this to be possible education would have to be entirely in the hands of the state, instead of being, as at present, left to private enterprise. There are few things that hamper a schoolmaster more in his work than this consideration of money. At every turn he finds himself driven to the consideration of paltry pence, when he ought to be giving his undivided attention to the work of forming the character or improving the intellect of his boys. An impression very generally prevails that Preparatory School Masters at all events are, as a body, financially very well off; and parents are very apt to misunderstand them entirely through a misapprehension on this point. It is a fact that neither Preparatory School Masters nor their assistant masters are well paid—the latter a consequence of the former. There are no doubt perhaps half-a-dozen schools where the headmaster makes a good income even as commercial incomes are reckoned. These are the prizes of the profession and open only to men with capitals of £10,000 to £20,000. The net profits in such cases may perhaps amount to three or four thousand pounds a year. There are perhaps ten such schools in England. After these it is certainly true that there are very few, perhaps not more than fifteen Preparatory Schools in the kingdom that yield an income of fifteen hundred pounds a year to the headmasters. By income is meant income returnable for purposes of income tax. The vast majority of Preparatory School Masters live very near the border line of no profit. Every school has some ideal number at which it is full. For the sake of argument assume that number to be fifty; that is about the average size of Preparatory Schools. A certain number of boys, say forty, is necessary to enable the current expenses to be met. These fixed expenses vary very little, and the difference of cost of running the schools for thirty-five or forty-five boys is practically nil. It is evident, then, that if the number of pupils drop below forty, a dead loss will be incurred, and that every pupil above forty represents a very considerable amount of clear profit available for the headmaster's income. Very few Preparatory Schools are really quite full, perhaps not half-a-dozen in England; and many are continually living on their minimum margin, so that the headmasters are practically unable to save. The result is obviously unsatisfactory for them, and consideration will show that it is equally unsatisfactory for parents. If the parents are to get the best from the headmaster he ought to be free to devote himself to the highest work of his profession. No doubt parents think, and at first sight it appears that they think with reason, that the fees they pay for their sons are sufficiently high. It is doubtful if a consideration of the relative wealth of the class from which boys of Preparatory Schools are taken and the income of Preparatory School Masters will bear out this view. Not only has the average Preparatory School Master a much lower income than his average parent, but further it is a fact that he has no reasonable prospect of being able to

make adequate provision for his old age. Surely one is hardly asking too much for a man from whom such great services are required in suggesting that his remuneration should at all events be sufficient to free him from such gnawing anxiety.

Consider, please, that the responsibility for a boy's education lies entirely with the authors of his existence. In a state of nature they ought to be the teachers; but they perchance lack the inclination, or the claims of society or the necessity of devoting their time to the profitable pursuit of commerce or a profession impels them to devolve their duty in whole or in part upon a foster-parent. Is it not then equitable that he who is required to perform a parent's duties should be placed financially above a servile position—that he should share the pleasure and profit the parent secures by the delegation of his proper duties in regard to his children? In the next place, unless parents see to it that their masters are well paid, there is a constant risk that they will attempt to make good deficiencies by stinting the children, in food, in scholastic equipment, in accommodation, or in the efficiency of the teaching staff. It is of course true in a very great number of cases that parents educate their children at the cost of the greatest self-denial; all honour to them for so doing. Parents such as these are not of the schoolmaster's troubles, he and they understand each other perfectly. But what not unfrequently are facts of the case is illustrated by the plaint of a headmaster who complained that parents grudged for their sons' education for a whole year a less sum of money that they readily spent on a brace of guns, and that others could spend £600 on a motor car, but asked him to give "a reduction of his fees for brothers." Why should such a reduction ever be asked? Two boys give just the same trouble and cost exactly the same to maintain whether they be brothers or not. In the same category must be classed the request for remission of fees in case of absence or removal of a boy without notice.

For the truth of the following story I can vouch. A young lady on whom had fallen the obligation of maintaining herself by her own work, had qualified herself in the highest degree for the work of a governess. In answer to an advertisement, she called on the mother of two little girls for whom a governess was required. The details were discussed and arranged to the satisfaction of both parties, till the question of salary was raised. The mother said she was very sorry, but her husband said he could not afford more than £20 a year for his governess. The young lady thereupon replied, that she too was very sorry, but as she was entirely dependent on her own earnings, she was obliged to look to money, and that she could not possibly live on £20. They were both exceedingly regretful and nice to each other, and after a little more conversation the would-be governess rose to go.

"By the way," said the employer, "I suppose you do not know of a good cook? Mine is leaving me directly, and I am in great difficulties."

"What wages do you give?" asked she.

"Fifty pounds a year."

"Well, I can cook. Let me come to you in that capacity."

The mistress protested that it was impossible—that she could not let a lady take a menial position in her house; but the younger lady persisted in her offer, maintaining that no honest work was degrading, and at last it was settled that she should come for a week and try it. The final scene took place in the dining-room, where at dinner the husband asked his wife where she obtained her new cook. She replied that she was only a temporary one, who had come in for a week.

"Well," replied he, "she is the best cook you have ever had. See if you cannot get her to stop, and do not let the wages stand in the way," and the matter was arranged accordingly.

It is not fair; you put the wretched master between the devil and the deep sea—the deep sea of financial loss where the margin of profit is in any case small—the devil of disobliging those whom he wishes to serve, and must if he is to serve them adequately look upon and consider as friends. If a boy has been obliged to be absent, he realizes, perhaps more keenly even than his parents the magnitude of the misfortune, and the fact of the ill luck, for he has a more intimate acquaintance both with illness in general, and with the individual boy's work in particular than even the parents. And, most strange to say, those who would scorn in dire need to beg from those that are nearest and dearest to themselves, feel themselves in no way humiliated in asking for a present—remission of fees is the euphemism they use—from the schoolmaster whom in many cases they have hardly seen. That a remission of fees is a present by the schoolmaster is a fact established beyond all doubt and question, both by the express terms of the school prospectuses, which constitute the legal contract between masters and parents, and by the decision of the Law Courts time after time, that the custom of the profession in this matter is binding. Perhaps it might help to reconcile parents to a practice which schoolmasters quite recognize appears hard, if they realized and remembered the following facts:—that the only profit a schoolmaster can make from a boy's absence is the saving in the amount of his butcher's, baker's, and grocer's bills; that the amount of this saving for a single boy in a whole term is so small as to be absolutely unnoticeable if the number of boys in the school to be provided for exceeds ten or twelve—what is the difference in cost for a dinner party of twelve and one of thirteen?—that of the master's fixed charges, the really heavy item on his debit side, rent, rates, and interest on capital, cannot vary at all, and the staff can only be reduced by a term's notice; lastly, that if the numbers of the school are full, the schoolmaster has refused to admit some other boy to keep the place for the absentee.

In conclusion, I would again emphasize the fact that I am not merely taking an opportunity to bring personal grievances before you—in fact some of the points I have raised do not touch me at all. I have tried to give you a glimpse behind the scenes that you may see things through

our eyes. And this I have done hoping and believing that by so doing I may give you an insight into our lives that may further the expression of that sympathy that is essential for the co-operation of home and school.

CORRESPONDENCE.

NATIONAL RIFLE ASSOCIATION.

BISLEY CAMP, BROOKWOOD, SURREY.

Feb. 23, 1904.

DEAR SIR,

At this time when there is the possibility of the conditions of military service of our country being changed, I should like to draw the attention of your readers to the advantage of teaching boys at Preparatory Schools how to shoot with a rifle. The advantage is, I think, two-fold. Firstly on Patriotic grounds. If in after life a boy joins any of H.M. Forces, how much better an officer does he make if he has a good knowledge of the art of shooting?

Secondly on Selfish grounds. When a boy goes up to a Public School he stands a much better chance of getting into the Eight to compete for the Ashburton Shield at Bisley, than the boy who has never done any rifle shooting before. After leaving school, if he still remains a civilian and so does not come under my first heading, it is still quite possible to obtain a very considerable amount of pleasure and amusement in shooting, either as a member of some local Rifle Club, or at Bisley.

It seems to me that this term is the one in which most time will be found for shooting. There is not so much going on as in the summer, though where the range is handy any odd half-hour can be very easily filled in with target practice.

I propose very briefly to show how easily miniature shooting can be carried on at Schools. The range is the first necessity. These are of two sorts, outdoor and indoor. The former are of course the best, as on them one has to contend with the difficulties of wind and varying light, but the latter are perhaps the more useful, especially under such climatic conditions as we have been lately experiencing. For an outdoor range some sort of high bank or wall is needed behind the targets to preclude the possibility of any stray bullet doing harm. Also there should be no buildings or public paths too close to the side of the targets. The length should be at least twenty yards, where twenty-five or fifty yards can be obtained so much the better. For a twenty or twenty-five yards range no hut or shelter is required for a marker, as the shot holes can be easily seen with the naked eye or an ordinary pair of opera-glasses. When, however, firing is carried on at longer ranges it is necessary to construct some sort of shelter from which a marker can signal the hits made.

Indoor ranges can be constructed in a gymnasium or covered yard, where it is possible to get the minimum

distance of twenty yards. In this case all that is wanted is a sheet of iron faced with wood to prevent splashes, behind the targets.

There can therefore be but few schools where no range can be erected at a very trifling cost.

As to the weapon. There are of course a number of miniature rifles of varying size and calibre. One that is used in several schools I know of is the Cadet rifle, which is a miniature Martini-Henry, and fires the Morris Tube ammunition. It shoots very accurately up to one hundred or one hundred and fifty yards. Card targets cost about 10s. a thousand for the twenty-five yards range, and 37s. per thousand for the fifty yards range. Each boy shooting keeps his own target, thus arousing a spirit of friendly rivalry among his schoolfellows.

In the majority of schools the gymnastic Instructor being an old army man will be found able and willing to act as shooting Instructor. The Rifle Club movement, advocated so strongly by the late Lord Salisbury in 1900, has been very keenly taken up by the National Rifle Association, which now has 453 Rifle Clubs affiliated to it. The affiliation fee for a miniature Club is 10s. per annum. Each Club is annually presented with a bronze badge, to be shot for as the Club likes, and which becomes the absolute property of the winner. Certificates are also granted to members who attain to a certain degree of efficiency. Rifles owned by Rifle Clubs affiliated to the N.R.A. are exempt from gun licence.

The Secretary of the N.R.A. is at all times willing to answer any enquiries on the subject, and I should personally be glad to do so too, or to visit any school where a club was being formed if I could in any way help it.

Yours, etc.,

ARTHUR V. BATES,

Organizing Secretary for Rifle Clubs.

INHABITED HOUSE DUTY.

SIR,

I am delighted to learn that the Committee of our Association propose to approach the Chancellor of the Exchequer on the subject of the House Duty. I presume that a request will be made to have our school premises classed as business premises, under which class they would be taxed at a maximum rate of sixpence in the pound.

There is no doubt that an amendment of the law in this direction would be nothing more than simple justice.

May I suggest that it would be well for every Schoolmaster to bring our claims under the notice of the Member for his Parliamentary Division, and ask for his support to our just demand?

I am writing to all the Schoolmasters (whose addresses I have) in this Mid-Surrey Division with a view to obtaining their signatures to a letter addressed to our Member. If this course were followed in every Division, there can be little doubt that we should at least obtain a hearing.

May I take this opportunity of asking any one in our Division who has heard from me either to write direct to our Member or to communicate with me?

Faithfully yours,

GEO. F. BURGESS.

Uplands House, Epsom, Jan. 25, 1904.

BOOK NOTICES.

ENGLISH.

Old Testament History for Schools. By REV. T. C. FRY, D.D. 191 pp. (Arnold.) 2s. 6d.

Anything from Dr. Fry's pen is sure to be frank and downright. This book is frankly "critical." "On all main points I believe the critical position to be unanswerable. I also believe that the teaching of the Old Testament to boys should not conceal these points." So says the author in his Preface. If, as we imagine, he is thinking mainly of the older boys at Public Schools, we agree with him; though it would be doubtful wisdom to put the critical point of view so dogmatically before even sixth form boys. In the hands of a wise teacher Dr. Fry's book will do good service: it is clear, pithy, and stimulating. But we consider it quite unsuitable for use in Preparatory Schools, not only on account of its critical point of view, but also because of its style. It reads more like a commentary on the sacred narrative than an "Old Testament History."

Old Testament History for Schools. By REV. W. F. BURNSIDE, M.A. 330 pp. (Methuen.) 3s. 6d.

This is far better adapted for Preparatory School lessons than the book noticed above. The author adopts a less extreme position than Dr. Fry, writing "with all reverence for tradition, though not on strictly conservative lines" (Preface). The Bible story is told in considerable detail with long quotations from the text of the most important and telling passages. For the explanatory and critical matter Mr. Burnside has drawn upon all the best modern English authorities and some others. We have tested the book and cordially recommend it.

History in Biography. Vol. II. A. D. GREENWOOD. Vol. III. F. M. WEST. Vol. IV. H. L. POWELL. (Black.) 2s. each.

In this excellent series English history is presented in the form of typical biographies. Thus Vol. II covers Edward II to Richard III, and includes lives of Bruce, Chaucer, The Black Prince, etc. Vol. III deals with the Tudors, and the lives include Wolsey, Cranmer, Spenser, Drake, etc. Vol. IV covers the Stuart period in a similar way. Each volume contains fifteen lives and about two hundred pages of text. The series is planned on a scale rather too large perhaps for most Preparatory Schools; but where time will allow, the use of one of these volumes

would probably produce excellent results in "fixing" the knowledge of a period.

Mediaeval England. MARY BATESON. (Fisher Unwin.) 5s.

This interesting volume of the "Story of the Nations" series demands a fuller notice than our space will allow. It deals with life in England during the Feudal period from 1066—1350. The court, the clergy, monasteries, learning, agriculture, and town life are described fully and in an attractive manner. There are numerous illustrations and some very interesting plans of castles and monasteries.

A First Book of English History. T. F. TOUT. Longmans. 2s. 6d.

This forms Book I in a series of three Histories on the 'concentric' plan, of which the Second Book has already been noticed. The writer has in order to reduce the bulk of the volume "deliberately rejected the method of attempting to tell a large number of familiar stories," and has aimed at making the work a series of pegs on which the experienced teacher can hang illustrative matter. The result is a consecutive narrative in about 250 pages which should be covered in a year's work. Prof. Tout has avoided the common error of "writing down" to children, but the narrative is clearly and simply told, and the book seems well suited for Preparatory Schools.

David Copperfield. Edited by A. A. BARTER. (Black.) 1s. 6d.

Dickens does not require much explanation: the notes to this edition are accordingly very few, and many of these are hardly necessary. The introduction contains a brief history of the novel and a sketch of Dickens' life.

Rob Roy. } A. T. FLUX. (Black.) 2s. each.
Legend of Montrose. }

Two more volumes of Black's excellent school edition of Scott's novels. The notes, which are brief and practical, explain all possible difficulties of language and allusion.

Fortunes of Nigel. E. G. DAVIES. (Black.) 1s. 6d.

An abridgment of Scott's story, forming a "Continuous Reader."

Lord of the Isles. W. M. MACKENZIE. (Black.) 1s. 6d.

The Introduction deals with the "character of the poem," its "historic and geographical setting," and its "metrical structure." There are ample notes.

A Geography of Australasia. L. W. LYDE. (Black.) 1s. 6d.

One of Black's School Geography Series, of which several volumes have been already noticed.

Africa. L. W. LYDE. (Black.) 1s. 4d.

This is a Geographical reader giving in 120 clearly printed pages a description of Africa. Part I deals with physical features. Part II takes the political divisions *seriatim*. There are numerous helpful illustrations.

Commercial Geography. L. W. LYDE. (Black.) 3s.

This book deals with the products of the various parts of the world. Care is taken throughout to show the relation between physical formation and commercial products,

Name Lists for Repetition Maps. G. T. WARNER. (Blackie.)

The book contains 56 pages, each containing a list of geographical names, and each referring to a particular map, e.g., France, Spain. The boy traces an outline map, putting dots to mark the places: this is done out of school. In school the lesson is heard by telling him to place some 10, 15 or 20 places, by putting in the numbers by which the places are distinguished in the book lists. The method was introduced at Harrow by Mr. E. E. Bowen.

Growth of the British Empire. M. B. SYNGE. (Blackwood.)

The fifth part of the "Story of the World," some previous volumes of which have been already noticed. It covers the period from Waterloo till the present day.

Descriptive Geography (Africa, Asia and Europe.) E. D. and A. J. HERBERTSON. (A. & C. Black.) 2s. 6d. each.

These three volumes form part of a series which attempts to depict the world in the language of men who have seen it. Each volume consists of a collection of passages from books of travel, the Geographical Journal, etc., and there is also attached to each a full bibliography. Some general knowledge of geography is of course assumed and the object of the book is to enable the reader to form some sort of mental picture of the country dealt with. For fairly advanced students the series should be very useful.

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Latin Grammar Rules. W. H. S. JONES. (Norland Press.) 6d.

A brief statement of the principal rules, interleaved with blank pages.

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Lucian's Vera Historia (Bell's Illustrated Classics). R. E. YATES. (Bell.) 1s. 6d.

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	25, 26.	King William's College, Isle of Man.
	25, 26.	Exeter.
	29.	Llandovery.
	29, 30.	Harrow.
	29, 30.	Oakham.
April	6.	Stonyhurst.
	12 to 18.	St. Paul's.
	21, 22.	Blackheath.
	26.	Wakefield.
May	3.	St. Olave's.
	(second week).	Hereford Cathedral School.
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	16.	Dulwich.
	26.	Newcastle (Staffs.) High School.
	30.	Rugby.
	30.	Bromsgrove.
	(end).	Aldenharn.
31—June	1, 2.	Cheltenham.
June	1.	Marlborough.
	2, 3.	Blundell's, Tiverton.
	7.	Clifton.
	7.	Durham.
	11, 14.	Reading.
	14 (about).	King Edward's, Birmingham.
	14, 15.	University College.
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	14, 15, 16.	Tonbridge.

June	18.	Carlisle.
	20, 21, 22.	Manchester Grammar School.
	21.	King's College.
	29—July 1.	Wstminster.
	30.	Lancing.
	30—July 1.	Radley.
July	4, 5, 6.	Merchant Taylors'
	5, 6, 7.	Winchester.
	5.	Epsom College.
	5, 6.	Charterhouse.
	5, 6, 7.	Dean Close, Cheltenham.
	5, 6, 7.	Bradfield.
	(first week).	Eton.
	6, 7, 8.	King's School, Canterbury.
	7, 8.	King's School, Chester.
	7, 8.	South Eastern College.
	11.	Nottingham.
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	12.	Ipswich.
	12.	Oundle.
	12, 13.	Derby.
	12, 13, 14.	Repton.
	12, 14.	Felsted.
	14, 15.	Glenalmond.
	20 (about).	Christ's College, Brecon.
	19, 20.	Plymouth College.
	(21 ?)	Mill Hill.
	26, 27.	Brighton College.
	(end ?)	St. Edward's School, Oxford.
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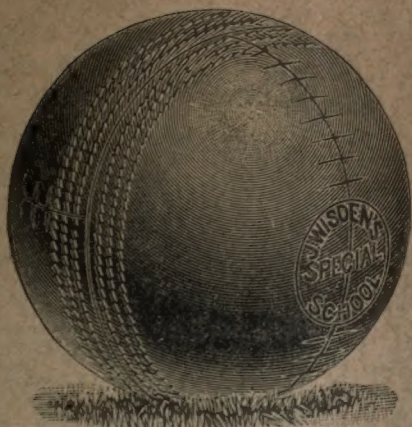
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